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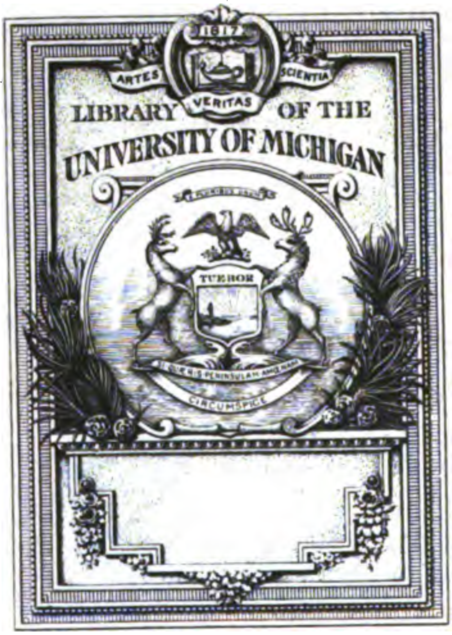
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FISHER'S

NATIONAL MAGAZINE

AND

INDUSTRIAL RECORD.

> *Self-dependence and Self-improvement—*
> *The first right, and the first duty of every nation.*
> JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

VOL. III.

NEW-YORK:
EDITED AND PUBLISHED BY REDWOOD FISHER,
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1846.

FISHER'S NATIONAL MAGAZINE.

NO. I. JUNE, 1846. VOL. III.

The absence of the Editor at Washington, which has enabled him to give the account of the Great National Fair which will be found in this number, and to make arrangements for the publication in the July number of the National Magazine of the full and official report and catalogue of said fair, must be his apology to his friends in the Book Trade for the absence at this time of all notices of New Books. It will, however, give him the greatest pleasure to make amends for this, by a more copious and extended account of new publications next month.

Erratum.—Page 53, for Cotton Yarn "imported" in 1837, read "exported."

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NATIONAL MAGAZINE.

No. V. OCTOBER, 1846. VOL. III.

☞ A typographical error has occurred at page 469, in the fifteenth line from the bottom, where it states that the British General Howe was in the possession of the City of Philadelphia in 1707. This should have been printed 1777. Our readers will please so to read it.

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No. VI. NOVEMBER, 1846. VOL. III.

ERRATA—At page 522, in the fifth line from the bottom, for "400,000,000 of Bales" read "400,000 bales."

At page 521, thirteenth line from the top, for "Philadelphia, May, 1846," read "Philadelphic, September, 1846."

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FISHER'S

NATIONAL MAGAZINE

AND

Industrial Record.

Vol. III. NEW-YORK, JUNE, 1846. No. I.

COMMERCE OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

The first account of Sweden, as a settled country, appears to have been about the year 814. At this time chronology first notices their kings, beginning with the name of King Biorno, whose reign is said to have commenced in 813.

According to Helmoldus, "The most eminent and principal city of Sweden, about the year 925, was called Byrca or Byrk, at which place the Christian missionaries from Germany took up their abode." He calls it the most famous town of the Goths, situated about the middle of Sweden, having a good haven on the Baltic sea, whither the vessels of the Danes, Norwegians, Sclavi and other Scythians resorted, for the purposes of commerce. Puffendorf, in his history of Sweden, says, "That in the year 1080 Byrca was one of the greatest and strongest cities of Sweden, being then able to send 12,000 men into the field." It appears that the city stood about thirty miles higher up the bay, on which Stockholm was afterwards built, where a village, with some few vestiges of the greatness of the former city, remained, in the early part of the 18th century. It is said that Olave was the first Christian king of Sweden, and that he was on the throne about 994.

Puffendorf says the Christian religion became the established religion of Sweden in 1110.

Stockholm, the present capital city of Sweden, was founded in 1255.

The first account we have of the copper mines of Sweden, is given by Mersius, in his Historica Danica, in which he says, that in the year 1396, Queen Margaret of Denmark, better known as the Semiramis of the North, going into Sweden, in order to secure the succession of all her three northern crowns, Sweden, Denmark and Norway, to her nephew Eric, amongst her other regulations, ordained that all the copper mines, excepting those belonging to the Bishop of Westerosen, should be restored to the crown; and that she moreover made at that time many good regulations for the benefit of commerce, and of merchants and mariners. And this is the first mention made by historians of anything of moment relating to Swedish commerce. In the year 1453, it appears King Henry VI., of England, at the request of Charles, King of Sweden, granted a license for a Swedish ship of one thousand tons, or under, having 120 persons on board, to go to the ports of England, there to dispose of her lading, and reload a return cargo.

Voltaire says, that "In 1533, King Gustavus Vasa, who was called the deliverer of his country, was the first of the Swedish kings who made foreign nations sensible of the weight which Sweden might have in the affairs of Europe, at a time when European policy was putting on a new face, and when first the notion was started, of a balance of power." He says, "Sweden had as yet no regular commerce nor manufactures, and the usual inventions were unknown there. It was this king, Gustavus, who first drew the Swedes out of obscurity, and likewise encouraged the Danes by his example."

To the persecution of the Flemish Protestants, in 1585, at which time took place the famous sacking of the city of Antwerp, Sweden is said to be indebted for some of its greatest improvements; numbers of the Protestants having removed there, and then first taught the Swedes the making of iron, copper and brass manufactures, the casting of cannon, etc. etc.; for it seems that before this Swedish iron was only run into pigs there, and was then sent to Dantzic, and other parts of Prussia, to be forged into bars.

Gustavus Adolphus, grandson of Gustavus Vasa, ascended the throne in 1611. Under this great prince, who was an enlightened ruler, and one of the greatest generals of his time, the glory and power of Sweden obtained its maximum. He took Ingria and Corelia from the Russians, Livonia from the Poles, and sundry valuable territories from the Danes. He was the leader of the Protestant party, in the struggle with Austria. He was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. He, it was, who commenced that freedom of religious worship, and that equal distribution of power, which was afterwards established by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648.

In 1697, that most extraordinary sovereign, Charles XII., ascended the throne of Sweden, and his well-known exploits nearly consummated her ruin. The battle of Pultowa, in 1709, finished his career, and gave Russia great ascendency in the councils of Sweden. He was followed by his sister, Ulrica Eleonora; and in her reign the royal authority was much limited, but it was afterwards extended in 1772. Gustavus III., having been assassinated in 1792, was succeeded by Gustavus IV., then a minor. In this reign Sweden was embroiled with France and Russia, the latter power overrunning Finland and threatening Stockholm, which led to a revolution in 1809, when the king was dethroned, and was succeeded by his uncle, under the title of Charles XIII.—Prince Christian Augustenburg being at the same time declared crown prince and successor; but the latter dying suddenly, Marshal Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's generals, styled Prince of Ponte

Corvo, was elected successor to the crown, by a diet held at Orebro in 1810, and became King of Sweden in 1818.

We have given this short historical notice, because Sweden, more than almost any other country in Europe, has been greatly retarded in her advancement, owing to the unfortunate taint of insanity in the princes of the House of Vasa.

Bernadotte assumed the title of Charles Jean; and there can be no doubt that his election was greatly beneficial to the interests of Sweden. He pursued a mild, equitable and enlightened system of government; and his son Oscar has succeeded him, being now King of Sweden.

The fisheries, the mines, and the forests, constitute the great natural resources of Sweden.

In Westmanland there is a silver mine, but its product we do not find recorded. In Wiemanland there is fir timber for masts. Her native products are copper, iron, tar, pitch, masts, deals, boards, &c. Her imports are wine, brandy, salt, spices, cloth, silks, and woollen stuffs; fine linens, French manufactures of all sorts, furs, paper, etc., etc. The following account of the commerce of Sweden, previously to 1805, is taken from "Oddy's Commerce:" "The principal source of the wealth of Sweden is its mines, of which there are a great variety of gold, silver, and copper; but the iron is, of all others, by far the greatest."

The progress made in the establishment of iron foundries in Russia, (which country used to receive her iron from Sweden,) has been so rapid, that the mines of Russia are fast rivalling those of Sweden.

We find by a manuscript register, taken of all the mines by the government in 1748, that there were in Sweden no less than 496 foundries, with 539 large hammers; 971 smaller ones for making bar iron; and other manufactures of iron, which produced in that year 304,415 skippunds, or 40,588 tons.

The present produce (1805) of the Swedish mines, is about 400,000 skippunds, or about 53,300 tons; and this increase, notwithstanding the great quantity made in Russia, which may be attributed to the superior quality of the Swedish iron, which is esteemed all over the world, as well as to their making different sized bars, square and flat, which are more easily converted into the general uses for which they are required, than that which is shipped from Russia. Great Britain takes about half, or rather more than half, of the whole quantity which Sweden exports.

The Swedish government established an office in 1740 to promote the production of iron, by lending money on the ore, even at as low a rate as four per cent. A correct register was then made of the mines, which is still continued. The latest statement of them is a manuscript account, which the author (Oddy) saw in the end of the year 1804. These foundries were then about 500; each foundry has its particular mark stamped on the bars of iron it produces, which is likewise correctly copied into the manuscript—also the name of the place where the establishment is situated; the names of the proprietors of the works; the commissioner or agent for the sale of the iron; the assortment each makes, and to what country it is generally shipped; the quantity annually made by each work; the quantity which each work delivers to the government, (which is about one per cent. on the quantity produced;) the estimation of the quality of the iron of each foundry, which is variable; the place and province in which each work is situated; the place from whence the iron is generally shipped, and how many hammers each work has; all which are regularly and alphabetically described and arranged. Each furnace, upon an average, makes but about eighty tons of iron in the year, with one large hammer and two smaller ones. There are some small works, or little forges or smithies, which make only from ten to thirty tons in a year, others from 100 to 500 tons; but the mine of Dannenvra, which was established in 1527, produces from 13,000 to 20,000 tons annually; it has the richest ore, and its iron is of a superior quality, and preferred amongst the steel manufacturers of England.

Of the next importance to Sweden, after the iron, are the copper mines, which have undergone a variety of changes in their produce, and that chiefly in the principal one of Fahlum: the richness of the ore in that mine has considerably fallen off. In 1650 its produce was 21,321 skippunds, or nearly 3,000 tons; in 1690 it fell to 10,000 skippunds; in 1751 it was only 4,938 skippunds; but since that period it has improved a little, and its annual produce at present is between 6,000 and 7,000 skippunds. Otevidburg, a copper mine, has lately been reopened, and others worked, so that the whole aggregate quantity of copper produced in Sweden at the present time, is estimated at about 10,000 skippunds, or near about 1400 tons.,

In the year 1738, a gold mine was discovered at Edelfors, in Smoland; but its annual produce not exceeding 500 to 600 ducats, it has of late years been entirely abandoned.

The silver mine of Salberg, in Westmanland, is the most ancient and the richest of all, having continued upwards of 300 years. In the fourteenth century, it is reported to have produced nearly 24,000 marks per annum, or according to others, about 18,000, when silver was three times the value that it is now; but in latter years the quantity has considerably diminished, so that at the conclusion of the last century the produce amounted only to from 1,600 to 1,800 marks. The lead mines averaged, in the year 1751, 44½ skippunds; and from 1763 to 1770, only 9. In consequence of the great falling off in the produce, the lead mine in Finland was at last entirely abandoned, and lead is now imported into Sweden.

The next article of the produce of Sweden for reputation is tar, from whence all Europe was formerly supplied for a considerable time; and had it not been for the spirit of monopoly in Sweden, arising from the idea then entertained, that it could not be had elsewhere, this branch of their trade might have been preserved exclusively to them to this day, instead of Russia participating in it, and Great Britain being driven to her colonies to manufacture and procure it from thence, in such quantities as even to supply other nations at a cheaper rate; but the quality of the Swedish tar is certainly superior to any other.

The tar exported from Sweden is principally produced on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia, though the west side produces some. There are only four principal places in the gulf, from whence considerable quantities are sent to the staple ports for exportation, and those are

Wala, which produces 10,000 barrels, besides pitch and deals; Jacobstaat, 20,000; Granla Carleby, 30,000; Brahestadt from 8,000 to 10,000; Uleaburg from 50,000 to 60,000; the whole produce for consumption and exportation being from 100,000 to 130,000 barrels of tar, besides pitch.

A considerable quantity of timber is now shipped from Sweden, chiefly to Great Britain. The prohibition to the exportation of that article from Russia, gave a share of this trade to Sweden, as well as Denmark. The gulf of Bothnia produces the most considerable quantity, but the ports therein not being staple towns, the principal exportation, it will be observed, is by the ports of Stockholm, Gottenburg, Gefle and Abo.

In general the produce of a country which furnishes the inhabitants with food is first described; but the natural situation of Sweden reverses that system, and therefore, we have rather described the means which enable them to purchase food, (their mines.) The climate of Sweden is unfavorable for the production of grain—it is very common that in ten years there are only two, and at the most but three ripe crops. In the same period there are but four or five crops middling, and the remainder wholly bad. Sweden reaps only two thirds of what is necessary for the home consumption. The deficiency is imported from the Baltic ports. The corn brandy, of which the Swedes are very fond, consumes a large quantity of grain. It is said that in years of scarcity the Swedish poor, in some provinces in the interior distant from the sea coast, make a composition of bark or roots with coarse meal, to preserve existence by this miserable food. A stipulation existed between Russia and Sweden, that a certain quantity of grain should always be allowed to be exported from Riga. Swedish Pomerania principally produces wheat; but as Rye is the grain chiefly used for food in Sweden, she goes to other ports, whilst Swedish Pomerania exports her produce to foreign countries."

Thus far we have taken Mr. Oddy's account, as affording an opportunity of comparing the productions of the period to which he refers, with the present state of her mines, &c. McCulloch says, there are now 586 mines, which produce from 80 to 90,000 tons of bar iron, of which about 70,000 tons are exported. He states, also, the present produce of their copper mines to be but about 750 tons a year.

The principal seaports are Stockholm, Nykoping, Nordkoping, Kalmar, Carlscrona, Malmoe, Helsinburg, Halmstadt, Gottenburg, Gefle, Hudikswald, Hernosand, Umea, Pitea, Lulea, and Tornea—along the coast there are several islands, the largest are Oeland, Gothland, and Wisby.

Its area is by official returns 171,015 English square miles, and its population was as follows in the respective years:

In 1751	1,785,727	In 1815	2,465,066.
1805	2,414,140	1820	2,584,690.
1810	2,369,990	1826	2,751,582.

Of the whole area of Sweden, about one half lies north of 63 degrees north latitude, beyond which, little grain except barley will ripen. Of the whole surface, 3,490 square miles, or 2,233,600 acres, or about one in fifty, is arable, and about twice that extent is under meadows and pastures. All the vast remaining regions are occupied by woods, bare rocks, marshes, bogs and lakes.

Industry has done much in a country where the climate and the soil are both so unfavorable for agriculture; and if the extent of cultivated land is small, the population is also so limited that there are two thirds of an acre of arable land for each individual inhabitant. This extent under cultivation with the animal food, butter and cheese of the meadows and pastures, and the support derived from the fisheries, have rendered it unnecessary to import much corn, except after the bad harvests, which are often occasioned by frosts. Potatoes and barley are generally raised. Some hemp and a good deal of excellent flax are raised and used in making domestic linens. A little tobacco is grown, and on the low grounds bordering the lake Wener, and on other places where alluvial or tolerably fertile spots of soil are found, agriculture is in a creditable state. In some districts there are not more on an average than 14 acres of arable land to a farm; and in the district of Carlstadt, where farms are the largest, and agriculture most advanced, the average extent of arable land in each farm may be taken at about 28 acres per farm. The peasants, who are proprietors of the soil they cultivate, have been reckoned at 147,974; those who live on land not their own, at 1,688,717; husbandry laborers holding houses and lands under proprietors, at 470,091; and servants living in the houses of, and with their employers, 277,466. Wages of farm laborers, from 18 to 24 cents per day.

Mr. Coxe, a highly respectable traveller, says, "I had frequent opportunities of observing the customs, manners, and food of the peasants. On entering a cottage I usually found all the family employed in carding flax, spinning thread, and in weaving coarse linen cloth. The peasants are excellent contrivers, and apply the coarsest materials to some useful purpose. They twist ropes of horse hair, bark of trees, and use eel skins for bridle reins. Their food principally consists of salted fish, flesh, eggs, milk, and hard bread. At Michælmas they usually kill their cattle, and salt them for the ensuing winter and spring. Twice a year they bake bread in large round cakes, which are slung on files of sticks, suspended from the ceiling of the cottages. This bread is so hard as to be occasionally broken with a hatchet, but is not unpleasant. The peasants use beer for common drink, and are much addicted to malt liquors and spirits. In the districts towards the west coasts, and at no great distance inland, tea and coffee are not unusually found in the peasants cottages, being procured in great plenty and at a cheap rate in Gottenburg. The peasants are generally well clad in strong cloth of their own weaving. Their cottages, though built of wood, and only of one story, are comfortable.

Imports from Sweden and Norway into the United States, for the year ending on the 30th of June, 1845.

Merchandise free of duty not enumerated under any particular head	138
Worsted stuffs	188
Dyed, printed and colored cottons	5
Ready made clothing and other articles of wear	17
Hats, caps, and muffs	75
Non-enumerated articles	1,098
Pongees white, and other manufactures of silk	37
Distilled spirits	2
Bottles	3
Braziers rods, from 3-16 to 10-16 of an inch	434
Pig iron	70
Bar iron manufactured by rolling	26,326
Bar iron otherwise manufactured	591,843
Steel	7,927
Boots and shoes	24
Books in foreign languages	36
	$628,223

Domestic Exports to Sweden and Norway from the United States, for the year ending 30th of June, 1845.

Spermaceti oil	2,505
Whale oil	14,447
Spermaceti candles	1,141
Naval stores	197
Beef	2,170
Pork	631
Flour	2,673
Rye	369
Rice	5,209
Cotton	155,623
Tobacco	60,412
Tallow candles	369
Manufactured tobacco	7
Lard	4,295
Paints and varnish	519
	$250,567

Manufactures of Sweden.—For a long period the peasantry have been accustomed to manufacture coarse woollens and linens as well as hardware. Various manufactories were established before the end of the last century, such as iron works, copper and brass works, glass works, manufactures of earthen ware, pins, silk, &c. In 1772, the number of factories, exclusive of those in the peasants houses, were 886, besides building yards, fish curing and mining. In 1824, the number had increased to 1,177.

From official returns we take the following statistics for 1832 and 1837;

Account of the number of Factories, Looms and Workmen in each department of manufacturing industry in Sweden in 1838 *and* 1839, *and of the value of the Produce of each.*

DESCRIPTION.	1838.				1839.			
	Factories.	Looms.	Workmen.	Value.	Factories.	Looms.	Workmen.	Value.
				rixd. banco.				rixd. banco
Cotton and linen weaving..	42	636	805	426,581	44	761	949	465,580
Ribbon ditto..............	10	69	107	45,152	11	71	103	45,194
Cloth ditto...............	108	558	3,455	3,863,439	114	685	3,642	4,045,989
Stuffs ditto..............	7	22	29	20,405	5	19	22	19,968
Silk ditto................	16	355	527	467,495	16	372	571	494,431
Silk spinning.............	11	....	26	27,600	12	....	21	28,000
Canvass and sail-cloth......	10	233	426	248,659	10	239	595	250,912
Dyeing	304	....	922	400,769	317	....	989	437,524
Glass-work................	15	....	547	366,227	13	....	615	354,600
China, or earthen-ware.....	2	....	364	155,142	2	....	375	176,292
Perfumery.................	14	....	15	22,706	14	....	15	24,906
Paper mills...............	89	....	1,333	756,278	87	....	1,241	803,494
Soap works................	15	....	34	127,845	17	....	37	114,054
Sugar refineries...........	28	....	397	2,489,256	25	....	458	2,625,763
Morocco leather............	4	....	14	25,464	5	....	13	15,920
Tobacco manufactories.....	87	....	790	1,018,528	81	....	765	1,003,036
Watch ditto...............	149	....	230	36,622	143	....	246	37,760
Leather curriers...........	255	....	687	678,076	258	....	675	529,728
Oil manufactories..........	47	....	98	148,587	48	....	93	138,905
Wax candle ditto..........	6	....	21	60,005	7	....	19	56,425
Woollen and cotton spinning mills............	9	....	763	745,047	9	....	810	879,988
Rope manufactories.......	17	....	82	64,612	22	....	93	108,339
Porter brewery............	1	....	116	184,479	1	....	86	175,437
Machine makers...........	16	....	252	98,299	19	....	290	120,342
Vinegar distillers..........	19	....	38	22,109	19	....	35	22,494
Calico printers............	11	....	104	42,179	9	....	120	76,094
Sundry minor manufactories.................	812	114	2 029	547,928	789	110	1,983	546,634
Total..................	2104	1987	14,211	13,090,089	2097	2257	14,861	13,597,809

Account of Cotton Goods made in Sweden during the ten years ending with 1840; *distinguishing those manufactured in regular factories from those made by the peasantry in the government of Elfsborg.*

YEARS.	Cotton Goods manufactured in regular Factories.	Cotton Goods manufactured by the Peasantry of the Government of Elfsborg.	Total of Cotton Goods produced.	OBSERVATIONS.
	alnars.	alnars.	alnars	1st. The Swedish alnar is equal to about two-thirds of an English yard. 2d. Besides the goods measured by the yard, a considerable quantity of cotton goods, rated by the piece, is annually made, such as shawls, handkerchiefs, waistcoats, &c. 3d. By the Tariff of 1830, which took effect on the 1st Jan, 1831, several articles of cotton previously prohibited, were allowed to be imported. 4.h. The Tariff of 1835, which came into effect on the 1st Jan., 1836, gave additional facilities for importation.
1831..........	577,099	1,277,740	1,854,878	
1832..........	639,406	2,040,255	2,679,661	
1833..........	945,752	2,656,307	3,602,057	
1834..........	945,192	2,464,419	3,409,611	
1835..........	999,574	2,513,805	3,513,379	
1836..........	953,273	3,100,666	4,053,939	
1837..........	820,083	4 015,503	4,830,586	
1838..........	1,105,883	3,831,258	4,937,141	
1839..........	1,218,249	4,084,526	5,302,775	
1840..........	1,296,822	4,653,381	5,780,203	

Number and Tonnage of Vessels which entered inwards and cleared outwards at the ports of Sweden to and from each country in each year, from 1830 *to* 1834.

COUNTRIES.	1830.											
	INWARDS.						OUTWARDS.					
	Swedish.		Foreign.		Total.		Swedish.		Foreign.		Total.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Norway	121	9,681	312	26,573	433	36,254	92	5,400	262	12,439	354	17,839
Finland	107	2,150	893	79,589	1000	81,739	120	4,226	855	88,236	975	92,462
Russia	66	8,986	5	780	71	9,766	61	5,378	20	4,210	81	9,588
Prussia	145	8,354	47	1,958	192	10,312	159	10,910	61	3,442	220	14,352
Denmark	1258	50 383	260	5,474	1518	55,857	1219	51,653	222	4,087	1441	55,740
Hanse Towns	193	17,342	9	2,568	202	19,910	153	12,849	4	369	157	13,218
Hanover and German States	124	11,959	26	2,340	150	14,299	116	9,758	20	1,730	136	11,488
Great Britain	56	7,805	155	32,068	211	39,873	97	16,750	168	36,778	265	53,528
Netherlands	34	4,582	26	5,779	60	10,361	40	5,102	24	3,821	64	8,923
France	37	6,252	24	5,256	61	11,508	100	19,682	40	10,692	140	30,374
Spain	31	9,430	....	....	31	9 430	12	3,648	....	....	12	3,648
Portugal	86	18,034	....	....	86	18,034	38	8,184	....	....	38	8,184
Italy	10	2,337	....	....	10	2,337	11	2,638	....	....	11	2,638
Gibraltar, Malta and Ionian Isles	....	....	....	....	....	....	43	9,950	....	....	43	9,950
Egypt, Barbary States and Morocco	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	962	....	....	3	962
East Indies	1	334	....	....	1	334	3	1,378	....	....	3	1,378
United States	5	1,169	24	7,423	29	8,592	9	2,376	49	16,279	58	18,655
Brazil	16	4,156	....	....	16	4,156	16	4,063	....	....	16	4,063
Total 1830	2290	162,954	1781	169.810	4071	332,764	2292	173,907	1755	182,083	4047	355,990
Total 1831	2426	165,835	1659	161,622	4085	327,457	2379	171,163	1576	163,830	3955	334,993
Total 1832	2384	170,224	1669	175,279	4053	345,503	2421	176,345	1560	178,617	3981	354,962
Total 1833	2701	174,713	1707	176,888	4408	351,601	2772	180,083	1748	180,436	4520	360,519
Total 1834	2647	175,193	1773	198,346	4420	373,539	2677	174,094	1707	206,282	4384	380,376

Number and tonnage of Merchant-vessels belonging to the several ports of Sweden in 1837.

COUNTRIES.	Number of Vessels.	Tons Burden in	
		Swedish Lasts.	English Tons.
Stockholm	139	9,675	23,220
Gefle	102	7,620	18,288
Gothenburg	72	6,354	15,250
Gottland	70	3,060	7,344
Calmar	55	2,012	4,829
Sundsvall	25	1,960	4,704
Westervick	32	1,527	3,665
Hernösand	28	1,397	3,353
Malmö	40	1,376	3,302
Carlshamn	25	1,160	2,784
Fiskebäckskihl	35	1,056	2,534
Halmstad	14	955	2,292
Norkoping	28	882	2,117
Ystad	23	880	2,112
Bastad	20	864	2,074
Soderhamn	10	783	1,879
Umea	14	759	1,821
Carlscrona	19	722	1,733
Skelleftea	11	691	1,658
Lyeskihl	21	652	1,565
Lulea	11	617	1,481
Uddevalla	8	473	1,135
Gaso	11	335	804
Hadeksvall	9	383	919
Stromstad	12	343	823
Warbeg	8	327	785
Helsingborg	16	313	751
Haparanda	4	273	655
Piteå	6	234	562
Sundry places in the district of Uddevalla	8	231	554
Soderkoping	5	218	523
Nykoping	10	210	504
Runneby	6	175	420
Solvitsborg	7	174	418
Christianstad and Ahus	5	121	290
Landscrona	4	111	266
Cimbritshamn	4	97	233
Rägorsvick	3	94	226
Kongsbacka and Onsala	2	66	158
Falkenburg	2	39	94
Total	924	49,219	118,125

Commerce of Sweden in 1781, *reduced to Sterling Money* (*from Oddy.*)

	Exported.	Imported.
Denmark and Norway	£160,063	66,595
Dantzic	22,358	33,246
England	367,291	97,762
France	203,762	83,145
Holland	107,103	151,583
Konigsburg and Prussia	49,689	67,580
Italy and the Mediterranean	82,166	33,170
Pomerania, Swedish	67,938	187,144
Portugal	£125,132	40,340
Russia and Courland	58,229	202,781
Spain	23,380	14,711
Hamburg, Holstein, &c.	128,911	38,202
West Indies	873	......
East Indies	122	10,810
	£1,397,048	1,027,069

"The balance in favor of Sweden was 370,000*l.* besides which, she is estimated to gain something considerable by the freight of ships, so that the whole, at that time, might amount to about 400,000*l.* sterling.

"The following table will show the state of the trade each five years, from 1700 to 1785, betwixt Great Britain and Sweden; and from 1791, each year, to the present period, distinguishing England and Scotland."

Account exhibiting the official value of the Exports from, and Imports into Sweden, and the amount of Customs Revenue for the ten years ending with 1840.

YEARS.	Value of Exports.	Value of Imports.	Total Value of Exports and Imports.	Customs Revenue. On Exports.*	Customs Revenue. On Imports.	Total Customs Revenue including Tonnage, Duties, &c.
	r. d. banco.	r. d. banco.	r. d. banco.	r. d. banco.	r. d. banco.	r. d. banco.
1831	13,565,000	12,303,000	25,868,000	428,426	1,717,845	2,641,687
1832	14,647,000	13,757,000	28,404,000	423,139	2,172,609	2,796,344
1833	16,903,000	13,886,000	30,789,000	451,004	2,265,408	2,952,378
1834	15,882,000	14,527,000	30,709,000	425,474	2,298,399	2,934,539
1835	18,585,000	15,562,000	34,147,000	512,971	2,611,969	3,377,229
1836	18,834,000	15,537,000	34,371,000	427,761	2,520,158	3,185,636
1837	17,453,000	16,456,000	33,909,000	328,690	2,985,274	3,605,305
1838	22,160,000	19,499,000	41,659 000	480,573	3,277,253	3,987,174
1839	21,018,000	19,363,000	40,381,000	503,345	3,026,910	3,792,678
1840	20,434,000	18,308,000	38,872,000	322,226	3,055,903	3,600,203

* Nearly all on bar iron.

Currency—The rix-dollar banco, in which all mercantile transactions are carried on, is worth about 40 cents: The ricks-gold dollars, used as the medium of exchange in ordinary transactions, being worth two-thirds of the former, or 27 cents.

Rix-dollars banco are exchanged for rix-dollars specie, at the rate of $2\frac{2}{3}$ds the former for one of the latter; and all rix-dollars are divided into 48 skillings. The notes in circulation vary from 8 skillings to 500 dollars banco. Such is the prejudice in favor of paper money, that in the small towns and remote districts, coins, excepting those of copper to a small value, are often refused as payment.

Measures of Length.—The Swedish foot is equal to $11.6\frac{84}{100}$ English inches. The aln is equal to two feet, the fathom three ells English, the rod eight ells.

Arts.—The arts and sciences have been successfully cultivated in Sweden. Antiquities formed the first objects of national research; but their study was superseded in the time of Linnæus and Scheele, by that of natural history and chemistry. Among distinguished authors and men of science, Sweden has produced Linnæus, Tycho-Brahe, Scheele, Bergman, Puffendorf, Berzelius, &c. &c.

Statement of the value of Imports and Exports at the respective ports of Sweden, in each year, from 1830 *to* 1833.

PORTS.	IMPORTS.				EXPORTS.			
	1830	1831	1832	1833	1830	1831	1832	1833
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Stockholm............	697,345	532,702	580,498	575,102	488,737	472,821	468,044	469,869
Gothenburg...........	324,360	314,059	316,016	338,066	247,427	261,816	228,167	252,432
Carlshamn	45,383	22,275	25,233	28,664	9,910	10,619	10.408	13,924
Norkoping	39,457	42,926	41,376	51,223	17,687	21,711	17,917	21,682
Malmo................	30,565	31,317	38,499	40.315	13,746	15,679	13,529	28,886
Gefle..................	24,021	16,671	15,529	15,748	51,708	48,816	50,453	62,717
Helsingburg..........	22,894	22,012	31,669	29,363	4,341	5,176	6,045	5,356
Calmar...............	20,784	17,087	22,784	23,660	29,119	21,454	18,903	25.523
Carlscrona............	16 874	20,664	23,409	15,938	3,562	3,879	3,998	4,837
Ystad.................	13,361	7,739	12,088	12,131	4,356	3,647	1,982	4,959
Halmstad.............	8,966	8,749	17,110	17,038	2,490	3,551	3,652	3,805
Haparanda...........	7,217	1,598	4,601	3,605	830	414	426	3,277
Westervik	5,382	6,212	6,211	10,297	7,429	7,545	6,438	8,543
Hernosand............	4,511	2,602	3,477	2,419	6,823	7,964	6,180	4,700
Uddevalda............	4,394	4,446	2,537	3,215	2,726	2,383	2,004	15,363
Landscrona...........	3,796	6,289	5,043	5.449	2,640	6,759	2,064	10,748
Wisby	3,758	6,258	9,457	8,272	11,208	6,168	5,542	5,934
Warberg..............	3,500	4,499	2,362	3,515	1,664	1,580	1,716	2,391
Kongelf	2,502	......	......	12,511				
Christianstad	1,825	2,288	3,298	4,293	....	....	....	569
Hudikswall...........	1,724	815	......	1,006	....	....	....	86
Marstrand............	1,503	691	......	228	4,361	2,677	....	750
Sundsvall............	1,256	3,386	1,063	1,380	12,287	13,125	12,353	10,151
Nykoping.............	1,010	1,595	1,476	1,890	1,244	751	256	3,722
Umea.................	682	1,220	305	411	1,055	1,279	886	1,540
Stromstad............	671	699	......	803	1,930	2,014	2,015	3,332
Hoganas..............	......	......	......	......	822	....	....	113
Soderhamn............	......	1,059	872	997	738	3.993	2.131	4,214
Jonkoping............	......	......	3,496	537	....	1,336	1,747	549
Pitea..................	......	......	......	76	....	825	....	757
Lulea.................	......	......	625	486	....	....	1,716	467
Grislehamn...........	......	......	......	431	....	....	....	106
Soderkoping..........	......	......	......	......	....	....	....	348
Frontier places to Norway................	......	......	1,064	322	12,168	....	9,755	1,927
Do. do. Finland.......	......	......	......	729	1,754	....	....	9,817
Sundry ports & places.	2,649	1,062	2,448	......	2,639	19,195	2,884	....
Total............	1,290,423	1,080,935	1,172,561	1,210,155	945,415	947,385	881,221	983,406

List of British Produce and Manufactures which are totally prohibited by the Swedish Tariff in 1842.

1. Cloth of a fine quality, ladies', and cords.
2. Cloth of a coarse quality, except dufil or pilot's cloth.
3. Cassimere of all colors, excepting plain white, yellow, and red.
4. Cotton goods, plain, having less than 76 threads in the inch of warp.
5. Flannel of carded wool, colored, or broader than 25¼ English inches.
6. Linen, when 3½ square English feet, weighs 1¼ English ounces.
7. Iron, under ⅜ths of an inch thick, or exceeding 1 cwt.
8. Nails of all kinds.
9. Saltpetre and gunpowder.
10. Silks, plain, checked, or striped.
11. Shawls, half silk, value under 16*s*. 8*d*. sterling.
12. Shawls of cotton, under 40½ inches English measure.
13. Shawls of woollen and cotton, under the value of 11*s*. 1½*d*. sterling.
14. Spirits, British, such as gin, whiskey, &c.
15. Printed porcelain.
16. Steel, except cast and rough.
17. Woollen baize.

In the following statement of *ad valorem* duties on goods, &c., imported from Great Britain to Sweden, the prices I have used, where they do not agree with the price current in England, are taken from the bills of lading, and they include the whole duties they are subject to, exclusive of wharfage, warehousing and other local expenses, which are, however, small. In general, the manufacturers have established prices higher (sometimes double) what they really can be purchased at in England, evidently to make the duties, *ad valorem*, appear moderate.

Quantities and Value of various articles imported into Sweden during each year, from 1834 *to* 1838 *inclusive.*

ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES.					VALUE.				
	1834	1835	1836	1837	1838	1834	1835	1836	1837	1838
						£	£	£	£	£
Porter and other beer..........gals.	......	......	5,189	5,625	3,210	116	187			
Porcelain and earthen-ware..........cwt.	1,149	1,688	1,849	1,889	1,766	3,799	6,250	8,463	....	5,709
Cotton yarn..........lbs.	779,266	1,038,608	1,038,780	1,101,094	907,272	....	....	....	....	100,199
Oil, from hempseed..........tons.	595	416	704	1,295	138					
" linseed and rape..........do.	141	133	215	186	143					
Machinery and mechanical implements..........	......	......	......	......	......	592	5,062	4,354	1,334	3,503
Paper, packing..........cwt.	13									
" other kinds..........reams.	2,182	2,216	4,073	2,274	2,252					
Soap..........lbs.	19	......	......	......						
Tobacco, manufactured..........do.	39,996	45,924	36,980	33,466	47,296					
" cigars..........number	318,917	285,437	531,875	214,050	414,116					
" leaf..........lbs.	2,793,725	3,012,074	2,833,470	2,944,640	2,733,197					
Hides, dressed..........cwt.	385	578	630	368	342					
" raw..........do.	15,101	17,703	10,359	9,928	6,974					
Ribbon..........lbs.	......	......	7,954	7,491	8,026	5,367	8,196	10,467	8,934	9,703
Cotton and linen:										
" printed cloths, handkerchiefs..........yds.	......	......	48,774	41,491						
" ditto, other kinds..........do.	......	......	131,238	......						
" sailcloth..........do.	1,543	3,239	5,192	11,448	7,314					
" other kinds cotton..........do.	......	......	......	680,638	......	40,491	55,925	60,279	....	46,717
" ditto, linen..........do.	......	......	175,032	237,455	......	6,384	4,925	5,589	6,869	4,883
Woollen goods..........do.	526,670	669,329	449,739	639,602	584,264					
Silk ditto, except ribbons..........do.	......	......	......	......	......	11,692	14,277	18,283	19,378	18,300
" raw..........lbs.	20,616	34,225	20,361	24,236	24,263					
Glassware, bottles..........number	221,660	291,613	......	573,851	397,177	5,948	9,683	8,029	8,608	6,908
" other kinds..........do.	......	......	......	......	......					
Old rags..........cwt.	......	......	......	7	......	....	....	....	2	
Cotton wool..........lbs.	711,020	797,705	1,104,364	931,369	1,215,301					
Oleaginous seeds..........bushels	28,816	34,187	41,200	31,693	26,651					
Wool, inferior..........lbs	1,138,655	1,411,244	715,288	1,420,875	1,161,928					
" fine..........do.	39,214	11,878								
Flax..........cwt.	814	495	72	405	329					
Hemp..........do.	2,991	3,044	3,330	2,626	2,901					
Sugar..........cwt.	96,575	120,360	64,512	99,446	109,786					

Statements of the Quantities and Value of various Articles exported from Sweden, during each year, from 1834 *to* 1838 *inclusive.*

ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES.					VALUE.				
	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1834	1835	1836	1837	1838
						£	£	£	£	£
Porter and other beer....galls	......	30,178	46,723	51,459	34,389	2433	1910			
Porcelain....................	......	......	......	......	......	280	41	14	31	20
Oil....................galls	......	......	73	......	......	654				
Mechanical implements......	......	......	......	......	......	240	133	844	951	1799
Paper, packing...........cwt	188	222								
——— other kinds......reams	30,283	32,573	36,297	36,548						
Soap.....................lbs	26,856	18,450	18,562	33,450	26,587	....	258			
Tobacco, manufactured.. do ——— snuff.......... do	197,039	133,747	120,730	94,514	91,454					
——— cigars....... number	8,750	3,060	22,800							
Hides, dressed...........cwt	7	12	40	9	15					
Ribbon, principally tape...lbs	......	......	829	615	295	24	122	232	180	86
Cotton and linen, sailcloth.yds										
——— other kinds, cotton..do	......	......	......	30,686	40,515	702	....	74	2,120	2734
——— do linen..........do	......	......	175,032	197,691	114,121	6178	5436	5589	15,174	9899
Woollen cloth..............do	1,052	......	......	......	4,966					
Silk goods.................do	......	......	......	......	......	60	10	37	68	18
Glassware..................do	......	......	......	......	......	176	126	175	899	565
Oleaginous seeds.........bush	49,746	65,439	67,472	33,837	52,174					
Wool.......................lb	17,702	......	29,321							
Flax ....cwt	154	205	389	361	336					

The tariff of Sweden, like that of Russia, is highly protective. We do not deem it of importance to occupy space with its details, as our trade with Sweden is very limited; but make the following extract from McGregor. See also page 12.

"Sails, cordage, gunpowder, refined sugar, iron, steel, the greater number of articles of cottons, woollens, earthenware, &c., are prohibited, and in addition to prohibitions and high import duties, export and transit duties of 5, 10, and 15 per cent. are charged on the amount of all other duties or valuations of duties; town dues of 2½ per cent. by privileged, and 40 per cent. by non-privileged vessels are charged, and tonnage duties of 12 skillings per cent. on Swedish, and 36 on non-privileged vessels.

The rates of duties, as well as the official values, are in Swedish bank money, of which twelve rix-dollars banco are equivalent to a pound sterling.

RULES FOR WORK AT THE COTTON SPINNING AND WEAVING FACTORY AT STOCKHOLM.

"The proprietors of this factory, which gives employment to a great number of girls of from 10 to 15 years of age, hereby announce the regulations which are to be followed with respect to labour in the establishment. It is their object, by unceasing care, by moderate demands on the capabilities of the young work people, and by constant attention to their morals and dispositions, to direct their minds to industry and propriety of behaviour, by which means, they, on leaving the factory, may lay claim to be preferred for employment, in such social occupations as suit their riper years, before those who have spent their time in idleness, and often under no kind of guidance.

"The conditions for being received and retained in the factory are:—good morals, industry, obedience and cleanliness. Those are preferred for employment, who can produce testimonials of having obtained some instruction, or that they continue to visit some Sunday School. On reception, the girls' names and ages, together with the occupation and residence of their parents, are entered on the muster-roll of the factory.

"When in the factory, the girls are treated kindly by the foreman and inspectors, but with proper strictness, though never with unsuitable severity. No other punishments than fines are allowed. Should any girl be convicted of a really serious offence, her parents are informed thereof, and she is dismissed the factory.

"The employment of the girls in the factory is of such a nature as never to press on their strength or health, and principally consists in order and attention, and a certain degree of cleverness in attending to the machines.

"Work commences at six o'clock in the morning. At ten minutes before that hour the bells begin ringing and the gates are opened. At six precisely the bell stops, when the gates are shut; after which time no one is admitted till after the breakfast hour at nine o'clock.

"After the dinner hour the bell rings at five minutes before two, and stops at two precisely, after which time no one is admitted till after the supper hour at half past five.

"For absence from work pay is stopped as follows:

"For the time from morning till breakfast, one-third part of a day's wages.

"For the time from breakfast to dinner, half a day's wages.

"For the time from dinner to supper, one-third part of a day's wages.

"For the time from supper to the close of work at eight o'clock, one third [illegible] of a day's wages.

"Should any one, without having obtained permission, or without a certificate of hindrance from sickness, be absent from her work a day or more, a sum will be deducted from her pay, equal to one and a half day's wages for every day's work so neglected.

"Wages are at least 1 r. d. banco per week, and are increased to double or more in proportion to the docility and consequent skill of the work people, and are reckoned at 12 hours' work per day, Saturday's excepted, when work ends at six o'clock.

"Wages are paid for two weeks together on every other Saturday.

"No one may leave the factory except during the dinner hour. Breakfast and supper must be brought with them by the girls, and be eaten in the room of meeting, where proper drawers and cupboards are provided for this purpose, each marked with a girl's name.

"If any of the work people fall sick, medical attendance and medicine are provided for them, and separate maintenance is granted when circumstances call for it.

"Mistakes and faults resulting from carelessness or disobedience are punished by fines, which are deducted on each pay day, and in the presence of the girls are deposited in the reward box, to be kept till the close of the working year, and are exacted in the following manner:—

"She who treats the orders of the foreman or inspectors with impudence or obstinacy, will be fined 4 skillings banco.

"Those who use indecent expressions, or quarrel among each other, will be fined 2 skillings banco.

"She who takes meat, drink, or bundles, into the working-room, will be fined 2 skillings banco.

"She who presents herself at work with unclean hands, or face, or with uncombed hair, will be fined 2 skillings banco.

"She who neglects to keep the machine at which she is at work clean, and free from dust and waste cotton, and to keep the floor around swept, will be fined 2 skillings banco.

"She who leaves her machine, without first stopping it, will be fined 2 skillings banco.

"They who maliciously, or through wantonness, meddle with the wheels, straps, or screws, which they are forbidden to touch, will be fined 4 skillings banco.

"She who hides cotton or yarn in her clothes or pockets, will be fined 4 skillings banco.

"The above fines can be levied only by the foreman or the inspectors, for no girl is permitted to accuse another, nor can any money be stopped for fines, until a girl has been employed one month in the factory.

"The amount of fines deposited in the savings box during the course of the working year, will be applied in rewarding such as may deserve it, as follows:

"The greatest rewards will be given to those who have not paid any fines during the working year, and who present certificates of a careful attendance at the Sunday School.

"A less reward to such as have been seldom fined, and then for minor offences; and—

"The least reward to those who have been often fined at the beginning, but have shown improvement during the course of the working year.

"Every girl who has worked at the factory for five years, and each year received some of the above mentioned rewards, will receive besides from 10 to 25 r. d. banco, as a reward of industry.

"Before admission into the factory, each applicant will receive a copy of these regulations, in order that she may show the same to her parents or guardians, so that ignorance of the rules of the factory may never afterwards be pleaded."

NORWAY.

Werdenhagen says, nothing can be depended upon with regard to the history of Norway before the year 800 of the Christian era.

The inhabitants of Norway became acquainted with Greenland about the year 837. It is said to have been called Greenland to distinguish it from Spitzbergen. This we learn from Lindenbrogius, who, in 1706, printed Adam of Bremen's work, "De Situ Daniæ," wherein it is stated, "that a door was opened for preaching the Gospel in Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Greenland and Haligalandon."

"Hackluyt" relates, that near the close of the ninth century a Norwegian surveyed the whole coast of Norway, and reported his discoveries to King Alfred of England; but nothing appears to have resulted from it; and Anderson relates, that all this discovery was utterly lost till the year 1553.

In 1054 the Archbishop of Hamburg sent missionaries into Norway for the propagation of Christianity; which, says Werdenhagen, "not only occasioned more frequent voyages to that country, but likewise gave greater confidence to the merchants of Lubec, Hamburg, and Bremen, who traded there."

In 1203 Suercher, King of Norway, died. He had been a wise prince, and given great encouragement to commerce, so that Norway, naturally poor and barren, by a diligent application to the fishery and to commerce, began to enter into considerable trade with other nations. In the year 1261 Haquin, King of Norway, claimed and established himself as sovereign of Iceland. Donald VIII., of Scotland, had in 1099 granted all the Isles of Scotland to the King of Norway, which it appears that they held till the marriage, in 1468, of James the Third, of Scotland, with Margaret, only daughter of Christian, King of Norway and Denmark. In 1560 Norway is said to have had a considerable commerce with Antwerp; and since that period it has continued its trade with England and various parts of Europe.

It belonged to, and was an appendage to the crown of Denmark till 1814, when, by the Convention of Kiel, it was united with Sweden, retaining, however, its own representative body or Storthing. The executive body is vested in a Viceroy and a Council, at Christiana. It extends from 58° to 71° north, and from longitude 5° to 31° east of Greenwich.

The general aspect of Norway is bleak, ragged and sterile. The shores are iron-bound, and on the west lined with numerous islands, and indented by bays, called fyords. The interior is mostly covered with a rocky mass of mountains or lofty plateaux—and only about a tenth part of the surface is supposed to be productive, though the climate is less rigorous than that of Sweden, particularly on the coast. Its manufactures are almost wholly household; and the internal trade is small for want of navigable rivers and the general defective means of communication. Some of the rivers are large, and they are numerous, but they are almost wholly obstructed by cataracts.

The principal timber is fir, or pine; and the most extensive forests are those covering the eastern declivity of the southern range, called the Norsska Fiellen.

Fishing is the chief branch of industry along the western coast. Iron occurs in immense layers in the eastern declivity of the Norsska Fiellen, in the province of Christiansand; and in 1835, 3,440,170 lbs. were shipped in bars, besides 330,083 lbs. in pigs, mostly to Denmark.

The harbors are almost innumerable. The principal are Bergen, Troundheim, Christiana, Hammerfest, and Waed-Oehms.

The following table shows the population in the years 1825 and 1835:

Population of each County or District of Norway in the years 1825 and 1835.

COUNTIES OR DISTRICTS.	1825	1835								
	Total.	Rural Districts.			Townships.			Total.		
		Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Agershuus	82,484	34,568	35,259	69,827	12,552	12,453	25,005	47,120	47,712	94,832
Smaalehnen	57,521	27,137	27,556	54,693	5,376	5,227	10,603	32,513	32,783	65,296
Hedemark	71,108	38,792	40,937	79,729	.....	.....	.....	38,792	40,937	79,729
Christian	83,103	46,599	48,329	94,928	128	126	254	46,727	48,455	95,182
Budskerud	70,136	32,461	33,535	65,996	5,095	5,695	10,790	37,556	39,230	76,786
Jarlsberg and Laurwig	49,791	23,833	24,888	48,721	3,727	4,311	8,038	27,560	29,199	56,759
Bratsberg	57,720	29,269	30,133	59,402	3,922	4,470	8,392	33,191	34,603	67,794
Nedenæs and Raabygdel	41,924	20,251	20,866	41,117	2,960	3,501	6,467	23,217	24,367	47,584
Lister and Mandal	49,590	21,243	22,274	43,517	5,539	6,422	11,961	26,782	28,696	55,478
Stavanger	57,464	30,411	30,972	61,383	2,913	3,378	6,291	33,324	34,350	67,674
City of Bergen	20,844	.....	.....	.....	10,665	12,174	22,839	10,665	12,174	22,839
Lower Bergenhuus	74,662	42,189	43,406	85,595	.....	.....	.....	42,189	43,406	85,595
Upper ditto	63,789	34,696	36,080	70,776	.....	.....	.....	34,696	36,080	70,776
Romsdal	64,151	33,950	35,190	69,140	1,673	1,929	3,602	35,623	37,119	72,742
Lower Drontheim	71,178	33,128	34,154	67,282	5,693	6,665	12,358	38,821	40,819	79,640
Upper ditto	52,494	29,378	30,476	59,854	.....	.....	.....	29,378	30,476	59,854
Northland	52,831	28,377	30,147	58,524	112	127	239	28,489	30,274	58,763
Finmark	30,528	17,640	17,701	35,341	1,098	1,065	2,163	18,738	18,766	37,504
Total	1,051,318	523,923	541,903	1,065,825	61,459	67,543	129,002	585,381	609,446	1,194,827

The navigation and trade of Norway has always consisted chiefly in the interchange of the wood of her forests, and the produce of her copper and iron mines, and of her fisheries, for the articles required by her from foreign countries.

The trade of Norway is of little interest to the American reader. MacGregor gives some tables, but they contain principally the trade between Norway and Great Britain.

MR. WALKER'S REPORT, CIRCULARS AND TABLES.

As all facts and arguments taken from the evidence furnished by Mr. Walker, derive a great degree of importance from their being so furnished, we think we cannot occupy our pages more advantageously, than by placing on record such portions of those documents, as prove the fallacy of the Report which they accompany.

With this view we published the testimony of Edmund J. Forstall in our April number. Attached to this testimony there are several articles referred to by Mr. Forstall, one of which is so very able, and shows so fully the favorable bearing of the tariff upon the planting states, that we have concluded to give this also to our readers.

It is evidently written by a southern man, and one who is perfectly familiar with cotton and sugar planting, and the manner in which they are affected by the tariff.

We ask the attention of our southern brethren to this clear and convincing array of facts, which do not admit of a doubt, nor can any candid mind deny the deductions made from them.

To all who may yet doubt the benign influence of the tariff upon the planting states, we say read, and be convinced, that to no portion of the United States is protection to the home industry more beneficial, than to those whose principal staples are cotton and sugar.

LOUISIANA AND THE TARIFF.—BY A NATIVE OF LOUISIANA.

THE TARIFF.

This subject has ever been, and must continue to be, one of extreme difficulty. The national government, since its creation, has chiefly depended upon the duties on imports for the means to carry into effect its constitutional powers. The country now finds itself unfortunately divided upon this mode of raising a revenue, considered, until lately, as almost inherent to our form of government. The question with our legislators should be—Are the people of these United States ready for a direct tax, with all its expensive and vexatious accompaniments, or not? If not, indirect taxes, or, in other words, duties on foreign merchandise, must be continued to an amount adequate to the wants of the federal government. If so, where is the justice, in remodeling the tariff, not to protect the labor of our own people against debasement by foreign labor Has not Benjamin Franklin said, "that it was the duty of government to encourage and protect industry in all shapes, in all instances, and by all means, and to root out indolence by every possible method?" Yet Franklin, if I am not mistaken, was a disciple of the free trade school —so was Adam Smith, if not its very father. Let us hear him, (page 8:)

"Whatever tends to lessen the number of artificers and manufacturers, tends to diminish the home market, the best of all markets for the rude produce of the land, and still further to discourage agriculture."

The freedom of a people depends upon the proportion of necessaries of life they possess within themselves—the larger the proportion, the greater the freedom. Complete freedom is where a people can live without their neighbor, when that neighbor shows himself unfriendly. Our Union is free, because we possess within it every necessary of life, and that, to preserve such necessaries, we have only to guard them against foreign labor, by sustaining, at the cost of production, our agriculture and industry.

France is said to have twelve millions of operatives and laborers. Suppose that, allured by that popular word, "free trade," she were to debase her agriculture and manufactures so as to compel the masters to reduce the wages of their servants five centimes; it would be a reduction of the capital actually required for subsistence to the extent of six hundred thousand francs per day, which, multiplied by three hundred working days, would make for the year one hundred and eighty millions of francs. Let any one acquainted with the condition of the working class of that country say how long such a state of things could last. The same rule applies to England and to every kingdom in Europe. Can we, then, expect from Europe free trade in exchange for our free trade?

Indeed, if France were placed in this condition, that she had to sacrifice all her Parisian bankers, or debase her manual labor five centimes, I would say without hesitation, sacrifice your bankers; because on the part of the bankers, it would only be a loss of wealth, whilst on the part of the operatives it would be a loss of subsistence. Society can live without wealth; whilst it cannot sustain itself without food; the one is a matter of vanity, the other a matter of life.

If the United States were to be reduced to the same alternative towards England, and she had to part with her navy, or with her working power by the effect of debasement—a mode of destruction as rapid as any other, if not more so—I would say again, give up our navy, however proud we may be of it; because, without our working power, it would be a useless expense, beyond our means to bear, and because we would have nothing worth keeping, our liberty being gone; whilst, by retaining our working power, we would soon be able to build another navy.

The theory of free trade, by Adam Smith, is a complete refutation of his own doctrine, before quoted. In penning the one, he was the economist of Great Britain; in penning the other, he was the economist of the world. Let us now hear England, through her McCulloch, (page 419:)

"Our establishments for spinning, weaving, printing, bleaching, &c., are infinitely more complete and perfect that any that exist elsewhere; the division of labor in them is carried to an incomparably greater extent; the workmen are trained from infancy to industrious habits, and have attained that peculiar dexterity and sleight of hand in the performance of their several tasks, that can only be attained by long and unremitted application to the same employment. Why, then, having all these advantages on our side, should we not keep the start we have gained? Every other people that attempt to set up manufactures must obviously labor under the greatest difficulties, as compared with us. Their establishments cannot, at first, be sufficiently large to enable the division of employments to be carried to any considerable extent; at the same time that expertness in manipulation, and in the details of the various processes, can only be attained by slow degrees. It appears, therefore, reasonable to conclude that such new beginners, having to withstand the competition of those who have already arrived at a very high degree of perfection in the art, must be immediately driven out of every market equally accessible to both parties; *and that nothing but the aid derived from restrictive regulations and prohibitions, will be effectual to prevent the total destruction of their establishments*," &c.

Thus it is self-evident that the free trade contemplated by England and her economists, was the monopoly for her own operatives of the working power for the clothing of the human family; a monopoly to be achieved by the debasement of all foreign industry attempting competition. The plan was gigantic, and worthy of Great Britain.

Russia was the first to be seduced by the popular and misapplied word "commercial freedom," and she entered the arena full of hopes. Let her own minister of commerce explain the result, after a few years' experiments:

"It offers a continual encouragement to the manufactures of other countries; and its own manufactories perish in the struggle which they are as yet unable to maintain. It is with the most lively feelings of regret we acknowledge it is our own proper experience which enables us to trace this picture. The evils which it details have been realized in Russia and Poland, since the conclusion of the act of the 7th, 19th December, 1818. Agriculture without a market, industry without protection, languish and decline. Specie is exported, and the most solid houses are shaken. The public prosperity would soon feel the wound inflicted on private fortunes, if new regulations did not promptly change the actual state of affairs. The Emperor, however, would not yield to representations; he desired to try the new experiment during a longer period; but he was particularly and above all things desirous that the reproach of leaving his engagements unfulfilled should not attach to him; moreover, he still flattered himself that less disastrous years might compensate for the losses our trade had experienced at the first moment of the crisis; and it is only after losses have reached their height that events have proved that our agriculture and our commerce, as well as our manufacturing industry, are not only paralyzed, but brought to the brink of ruin, that his imperial majesty formed the resolution," &c. &c.

The remedy applied by the Emperor of Russia was exactly that pointed out by McCulloch, to wit: *Restrictive regulations and prohibitions*, with which the present Russian tariff abounds. And, indeed, that is the true meaning of free trade:—*Home trade, judiciously guarded against the debasement by foreign competition, whereby the labor of the operative is protected, his wages depending upon the value of his* *labor.* And this is in strict accordance with Adam Smith's doctrine, for he says, that "the home market is the most important of all markets; and that whatever tends to diminish the number of artificers and manufacturers, tends to diminish the home market."

McCulloch (page 443) estimates the quantity of cotton consumed in Great Britain at 240,000,000 lbs., which, when manufactured, he values at 34,000,000 pounds sterling.

This amount he distributes as follows:

Raw material, 240,000,000 lbs., at 7d.	£7,000,000
Wages of 800,000 weavers, spinners, bleachers, &c.	18,000,000
Wages of 100,000 engineers, machine makers, smiths, joiners, &c.	3,000,000
Profits of the manufacturers, wages of superintendents, sums to purchase coals, &c.	6,000,000
	34,000,000

From which it is seen, that of the above 34,000,000 pounds sterling of manufactured cottons, the producers of that commodity receive... $\frac{7}{34}$
The operatives thereupon.................................... $\frac{21}{34}$
Whilst the masters, for the interest on their capital, the expenses of superintendence, of coals, &c., only receive................ $\frac{6}{34}$

The same proportions are applicable to the United States, not only for cotton, but also for all other manufactures. Is it not, then, self-evident, that by far the largest interest involved in the tariff question is that of our laborers and operatives, who, for political or other purposes, are used by the designing to throw odium upon the masters, the ruin of whom would immediately carry ruin to these very laborers and operatives?

The protection of home labor by a judicious tariff does not produce high prices, but the very reverse, as is fully evidenced by our commercial history.

A few examples become here necessary; but, first of all, it is well that the modus operandi of the British manufacturer should be well understood. Home trade is the best;—so says Adam Smith; and so is the truth equally applicable to the American and British manufacturers. To the home market, therefore, the manufacturer looks for his profits, and to foreign markets for his surplus production. This surplus, be the loss what it may, must be forced into consumption, for accumulation is death to production; to force consumption at home is to debase production in its best market—to debase production is to debase the labor of the operatives; labor being an essential component of production, invariably moving with it in adverse or favorable circumstances, and sharing all its fluctuations as an indivisible whole. Thus it is that the British government, as the natural guardian of the people—

1. Protect the wages of their operatives and laborers against debasement from foreign labor, by all means in their power. Hence the origin of their corn laws, which may serve as their definition of the free trade doctrine, as applied to themselves.

2. Use every exertion to open new markets, by inculcating throughout the world their principles of free trade, as applied to foreign countries,

that their operatives, by debasement of foreign labor, may monopolize such labor, in order to secure their surplus production against losses, which would otherwise render such surplus a dead weight. And so it is, that Great Britain, not being able to compete with foreign agriculture for corn, prohibits foreign corn, that the products of her agriculture may be free from debasement by foreign labor; and that, as nothing but the aid derived from restrictive regulations and prohibitions (see McCulloch) will be effectual "to prevent the destruction of foreign manufactures by British operatives in all markets equally accessible to both parties." The free trade contemplated by her, as before said, *is the introduction in all markets of her manufactures, whereby her operatives, by their superiority in the art, will be able to effect the total destruction of all competition.*

The British manufacturer feeling safe at home against debasement by foreign labor, protects himself against over production and its sequence, debasement, by resorting to foreign markets for the disposal of his surplus, which surplus is there sold without any reference to its cost of production, as evidenced by the New-York vendue sales throughout every year.

The operation of this surplus is the same as that of gold used by the besieger, to debase the besieged into a surrender not otherwise obtainable. Let the surrender take place, and then the gold is made, to be returned with compound interest. Our manufactures have not to compete with British manufactures at cost of production, but with the surplus of those manufactures at debased prices. *The free trade advocated by Great Britain, is the gold of the besiegers.*

And now for the proposition that high prices are not a forced consequence of a tariff, when judiciously laid, but the reverse.

Examples—(Niles's Register, vol. 44—"United States:")

1793—Iron, duty or protection to home operatives,	$15 00	per ton.	Current value in the home market,	$90 a 95	per ton.
1816—do. do. reduced to	9 00	"	do. do. do.	110 a 120	"
1824—do. do. increased to	18 00	"	do. do. do.	90	"
1832—do. do. do. to	22 40	"	do. do. do.	80	"

From which it is seen, that as home operatives have been protected against the debasement of their labor, home prices have ruled low; that as that protection has been decreased, home prices have ruled high. And the reason of this is obvious.

Our great competitor is England. She enters foreign markets with her surplus production or labor, whilst at home we have to meet her with our full labor. She fights for conquest, we fight for freedom; if she fail, she only suffers in her surplus, her home labor remaining untouched by foreign labor. On the contrary, if she succeed, our home labor is prostrated or destroyed, and her operatives take the place of our operatives. Then she dictates her terms, and then the consumers are made to pay the expenses of the war with a vengeance, and their folly for swallowing the bait presented by the magic word "free trade." The whole of this working is simple: Suppose the cost of production of iron to be, both in England and the United States, seventy-five dollars per ton, and the quantity required annually, for our home consumption, one hundred and fifty thousand tons, all supplied by our own mines and workshops; suppose, also, the duty to be taken off or reduced to a trifle, England, with ten to twenty thousand tons at most, could debase prices twenty-five dollars, which would carry ruin to our workshops, and turn adrift our own operatives, whilst opening a large field for her own.

What is true regarding iron, is equally true when applied to any other manufactured article in the United States. Supply and demand must ever be the governing rule of prices; increase or diminish the supply one per cent., and prices may fall or advance 50 per cent. below or above the cost of production; which, the moment the equilibrium is deranged, ceases to influence prices, which are then ruined by speculation.

Niles's Register, page 7, vol. 42 :

1818—Plain cottons, made of yarn, No. 14, weighing 1 lb. per 3 yards, 28 cts. per yd.
1841 Do. do. do. do. 10½ cts. do.

For the last ten years our southern planters have not been paying, for the very same goods, which form the great bulk of cotton manufactures required by the people, more than 10½ a 11 cents; and they cannot be produced cheaper and of better quality in England; for she can hardly compete with us in Mexico and South America, whose markets we enter upon a footing of equality.

So it is with all kinds of iron works. Our engines and locomotives not only take the lead in the West Indies, but also find favorable markets in Russia, for which we now hold large orders. Let the inquiry be applied to any other article of American manufacture or produce, and the same result will be arrived at.

Mr. McDuffie, of South Carolina, in a speech to Congress in 1830, has maintained "that a tax on imports eventually falls on the producer of the exports, and is consequently equivalent to a tax on these exports."

This proposition has been adopted by a large portion of the South as an incontrovertible truth—hence the war which has ever since been waged against the tariff, to which it has become so popular to attribute all the distress of the agricultural interests; yet, constituted as our government is, a little reflection would have shown how much akin is that war to that so beautifully told of the "limbs against the stomach;" and, unfortunately for us, we have arrived at that period of our democracy when we may deduce from our own history the moral lesson contained in that allegory. Tacitus has said:

> "Pauci prudentiâ honesta ab deterioribus, utilia ab noxiis discernunt."

How applicable these words of the great Latin historian to our present would-be statesmen! The doctrine of Mr. McDuffie, to be true, would have required a correlative, to wit: that the producers of cotton, tobacco, &c., &c., should have been the only consumers of the merchandize received in exchange therefor. Is it so? Yet, said the Southern Review for November, 1831, speaking of the position assumed by Mr. McDuffie, "we have never seen even a plausible attempt to answer it." Why, Mr. Reviewer? Because it required no answer—the proposition was false; it carried with it its own condemnation. It is hardly necessary to say, that the cotton planter, selling $30,000 of cotton, and consuming only $3,000 of foreign commodities—and this is a very large allowance—pays only duties on $3,000, whilst the other consumers of the Union pay upon $27,000. This is, however, assuming that high prices are a forced consequence of the tariff, to which I by no means agree.

Let us now inquire how far duties on foreign importations influence prices at home. This is the text of most of the violent appeals to the passions of the people by our stump orators, and by many and many of our great politicians in Congress; indeed, we have come to that, that it may be said, as in the time of Aristophanes, "Do not touch that stump—an orator will jump out of it." The people are appealed to, to put down the infamous duties upon those commodities emphatically called "necessaries of life"—those taxes upon the labor of the poor; and the feelings of the ignorant are worked upon in exactly the same manner as are those of the famished populace of old Europe by designing politicians. Have we a populace? Is there not food here in abundance for every man that will work for it? Are we not a people possessing equal rights, equal privileges? Is there one profession, one public office, closed against the son of the humblest citizen? Are we not free? How is it, then, that the good people of these United States suffer themselves to be lowered down and assimilated to the starving populace of Europe, by their stump demagogues and Congress-speech spinners?

Unfortunately, when party feelings predominate in a country, principles are soon made to make room for men; real patriots are discarded, and the ignorant become the tools of the designing; action, through rules deduced from experience, is replaced by agitation and idle theories; the most palpable truths are denied, and honesty, talent, and patriotism are driven out of every public office by calumny and detraction. The demoralization in the government carries demoralization among the people, until the whole becomes a mass of corruption.

But to return to the tariff and its influence upon prices in our home market. It has already been shown that the very same cotton goods for which our cotton planters had to pay 28 cents in 1818, have been current these last ten years at and under 11 cents. Coarse woollens have been declining in the same proportion. Had it not been for the fostering action of the tariff, our cotton planters would have had to pay for the engines they use for ginning their cotton 50 per cent. more than they now pay for the very same article to our own manufacturers. It must be yet in the recollection of our sugar planters, that the first engines and mills used by them were imported from England, and that their cost was nine to ten thousand dollars; whilst for machinery equally good and equally powerful, they have now only to pay from four to four thousand five hundred dollars; and all this has been brought about, by that so much abused and so little understood tariff. Let any honest cotton planter, with Mr. McDuffie's doctrine before him, take a full account of foreign manufactures used by him for his negroes and plantation utensils, and my word for it he will find the amount under $1,000, even with a gang of 100 hands; and, supposing the value of these foreign goods to be enhanced 30 per cent. by the tariff, he will see that his contribution towards the expenses of the federal government is a mere trifle; and it is for this that the country must be agitated—that the harmony of our Union must be jeoparded; nay, that our Union itself is threatened to perish!

Let us now see the operations of the tariff upon necessaries of life, or rather, articles agreed to be so considered by habit; for I contend that (thanks to that monster, the very naming of which drives certain demagogues into hysterics) we could now live within ourselves, in the middle of abundance, if it became necessary so to do; and that is the only rational meaning of "freedom."

Niles's Register, vols. 1, 5, and 44:

1811—	Coffee—	duty	5 cts.,;	current	prices in the	U. States	16	cents.
1813,	"	"	"	"	"	"	22	"
1820*a*'22	"	"	"	"	"	"	27	"
1829*a*'30	"	"	"	"	"	"	12½	"
1831,	"	"	2 "	"	"	"	12½	"
1832,	"	"	1 "	"	"	"	13	"
1833,	"	"	free	"	"	"	13	"
1833*a*'41,	"	"	"	"	"	"	11 a 12½	"

These are not theories, but facts! You anti-tariff men, of all parties, answer this plain question: did the free admission of coffee in the United States enhance its value in Cuba, or diminish the cost of it to that good people to whom you devote all the power of your lungs? Had you given less freedom to your tongues, and more time to your heads, you would have discovered that the low prices of coffee, compared to the current value of sugars in 1811, had induced the planters of Cuba to give the preference to the latter over the former culture;—the natural consequence was, a decrease of production and increase of price, which gradually attained the enormous rate of 27 cents per pound. In the meantime, however, coffee having become the golden article, planters returned to it; and its cultivation was increased to such an extent, that prices suddenly gave way, as here shown, and have not since recovered, notwithstanding its admission duty free in the United States; and as to our would-be populace, they are paying as much for it as in 1830, when the government was collecting 5 cents per pound.

The excess of production of any commodity whatever, over the wants of consumption, carries with it a depreciation far beyond that excess. Prices must ever be ruled by supply and demand, as exchanges by gold and silver; and whenever otherwise, take care of the squall—it may soon become a tornado.

Despair is blind. South Carolina, in its agricultural distress, assailed its best friend, "the tariff"—that friend which freed our beloved Union from foreign dependence. Its real enemies were the rich lands of Alabama, of Mississippi, and Louisiana. This is the proper place for a brief account of the workings of cotton.

From Niles's Register, vol. 44, and Holt's Liverpool Prices Current of 1st January, 1841:

Crops of the United States.	**Value of uplands in the Liverpool market.**	
1814— 17,816,479 lbs.	23 *a* 37*d.*	
1815— 82,948,747 "	18 *a* 25½	
1816— 81,747,116 "	17 *a* 21½	
1817— 85,649,328 "	20 *a* 23½	
1818— 92,471,178 "	19½ *a* 22	
1819— 87.997,045 "	12½ *a* 19¾	
1820—127,860,152 " or about 319,655 bls.	11 *a* 13¾	
1821—124.893,405 "	10 *a* 11½	
1822—144,675,095 "	5¾ *a* 8¼	
1823—173,723,270 "	6¼ *a* 8½—	8½ *a* 10¾
1824—142,369,663 "	7 *a* 8¾	9 *a* 10½
1825—176,449,907 "	6 *a* 9½	16¾ *a* 19½
1826—204,535,415 "	5½ *a* 6¾	6 *a* 8¾
1827—294.310,115 "	4⅞ *a* 6¾	6¾ *a* 7¾
1828—210,590,463 "	5 *a* 6¼	6½ *a* 7¾
1829—264,837,186 "	4⅛ *a* 6¼	5¾ *a* 7
1830—298,459,102 " or about 746,147 bls.	5⅞ *a* 7	6½ *a* 7⅞

New-Orleans—Valley of the Mississippi.	**Value of uplands in the Liverpool market.**	
1831—428,876 bales	5 *a* 7¼—	6¾ *a* 8d
1832—349,795 "	5½ *a* 8	6¾ *a* 9
1833—411,104 "	6½ *a* 9	9¾ *a* 14
1834—461,647 "	7¾ *a* 10	9½ *a* 12½
1835—529,734 "	6⅞ *a* 12	9¾ *a* 14½
1836—495,610 "	7 *a* 12	9½ *a* 14
1837—601,346 "	4¾ *a* 7	7½ *a* 13
1838—739,245 "	5 *a* 9½	6¼ *a* 10
1839—580,298 "	5¾ *a* 9	8 *a* 11
1840—950,078 "	4½ *a* 8½	6 *a* 9

Crops of the Mississippi valley and Alabama—New-Orleans Circular, 1st October.

1840—New-Orleans	962,438 bales,
Alabama	446,807 "
	1,409,245 bales!!
1840—Total crop of the United States	2,171,293 bales!!

Imports of Great Britain.—Holt's Circular, 1st January, 1841.

1820	458,736 bales!!
1830	793,605 "
1840	1,415,341 bales!!

A few plain questions here again naturally present themselves for the anti-tariff gentry. Was there no tariff when cotton, in 1817, two years after the peace, was selling in Liverpool at 23½d. for uplands? Had there been any material change to that tariff when cotton, in 1822, declined to 5¾ to 8¼? and when, in 1824, it advanced to 9 a 10½, and in 1825 to 16¾ a 19½? and when, in 1826, it receded to 6 a 8¾, and in 1827 it fell to 4⅞ a 7¾? What have you gained by the compromise bill?—a bill, the very name of which ought to put the nation to the blush—a bill which is a flagrant violation of the constitution, for it cannot be put into operation without destroying the uniformity of duties. In 1832, cottons were selling in Liverpool at 5½ a 8, and 6¾ a 9d.; and in 1840 at 4½ a 8½, and 6 a 9d!!!

South Carolina did not study her interest; whilst she was preparing to resist the federal government, she ought to have suddenly turned her forces against the cotton fields of Alabama, Louisiana, and Mississippi, and destroyed some 5 or 600,000 bales of cotton, and then uplands would have immediately advanced in Liverpool to 23d., and even more! But to the point; the above tables show—

That the extraordinary increase, in 1826, of our cotton crops, depressed prices for the five years ending in 1830 to an average of $6\frac{3}{8}$.

That the crops from 1831 to 1836 having presented no extraordinary variation, average prices advanced to 9d.

That the large crops of 1837 and 1838 again reduced prices, the average prices for these two years having only been $7\frac{1}{8}$.

That the crop of 1839 having been a comparatively small one, prices again advanced to an average of $8\frac{3}{8}$, notwithstanding the perturbation caused in England by a short crop of grain.

That with the large crop of 1840 again came depreciation, average prices having receded to 7d.

And all this is easily accounted for without touching the unfortunate tariff. 1815 to 1820 were the golden days of the cotton planter and manufacturer, both using their utmost exertions to work their mines, until at length debasement, inherent to over supply, began to show itself. To meet this great destroyer of industry, the manufacturer applied himself most diligently and ingeniously to improve his machinery and to increase his works, so as to invite consumption by lowering prices, quantities making up for difference of profits. In this, his success was wonderful. On the other hand, the planter, to meet the depreciation in the value of his cotton, applied himself to increase his crops, that quantity might make up for difference in prices. Exhausted lands were abandoned for more fertile soil, and Georgia, Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland soon saw their working power gradually removing to the virgin forests and rich alluvial soil of Mississippi and Alabama, where it was soon ascertained that one hand could produce per annum 6, and in some places even 10 bales of cotton, whilst two, and at most three, could hardly be obtained in the best fields on the Atlantic shore. This really produced a revolution in the culture of cotton.

The whole crop of cotton in the United States, as above shown,

amounted in 1820 to - - - - - -	319,655 bales.
During the ten years ending in 1830, it increased to	746,147 "
And during the ten years ending in 1840 it gradually reached - - - - - - -	2,171,293 "

The valley of the Mississippi alone, during the last year, produced upwards of 216,000 bales more than the whole crop of the United States in 1830, and Mississippi and Alabama together producing one million four hundred and nine thousand three hundred and forty five bales, or one million eighty nine thousand five hundred and ninety bales more than the total crop of the United States in 1820! and six hundred and sixty three thousand and ninety eight bales more than the total crop of the United States in 1830!

Unfortunately for both manufacturer and planter, consumption could not keep pace with such gigantic strides, and both had gradually to submit to the inflexible rule of supply and demand, and to all the vicissitudes consequent to their deranged equilibrium. How is it that a case so plain, so palpable, should have escaped sagacious Carolina?

Whatever may have been the iniquities of the tariff, the depreciation in the value of cotton cannot be placed at its door; that depreciation has been the natural consequence of excessive production. The same cause would have produced exactly the same effect in any other exchangeable commodity—in gold itself; as before said, whilst one per cent. less than the quantity of commodities required for the consumption of the world may produce an advance of twenty, thirty, and even fifty per cent. on the cost of production, one per cent. more may produce a debasement in exactly the same ratio. On the stability of the value of labor depend the stability and well-being of a people. There can be no stability of the value of labor, without stability in the value of production, of which labor is a vital component. It is, therefore, an imperative duty with government to protect labor and production against all excess that may produce debasement.

Were British manufactures, freed from effective taxation, to be poured into our markets, so as to bring our own manufacturers to throw their hands upon agriculture, which in its turn would feel the morbid influence of debasement, the only effect would be to transfer the clothing power from our workshops to those of Europe, in lieu of the increased consumption, whereby the Carolina planter expected an advance in his cotton of fifty to one hundred per cent. The value of production can only advance in the ratio of consumption; and surely the placing in the hands of England of the working power of America would not have added a single consumer to the general consumption, but it would have produced this effect: England would have acquired a monopoly; cotton would have continued to be debased, or to advance in the ratio of excess or short production, compared to consumption, and the great monopolist would have made us pay for the $50,000,000 of cotton manufactures we now produce for our annual consumption—twenty, thirty, and even fifty per cent. more than we now pay to our own people. And suppose, for argument's sake, that Carolina could be benefited one million dollars by this transfer of power; well, England might pay her such a bonus, whilst she would be, thereby, securing to herself an annual profit, which, at pleasure, she might increase to ten, fifteen, and even twenty-five millions of dollars. But what would be just towards the Carolina planter, would be equally so towards every other cultivator; and thus gradually the debasement in our manufactures of all sorts would throw us at the mercy of Europe, for the $250,000,000 of merchandise we now manufacture for our own annual consumption. And to pay for this enormous sum, what would we have? Our cotton! We have it now, and Europe can no more do without it than without the coals of its mines. Tobacco! We are almost the exclusive suppliers of that article. Flour! England will not receive it, notwithstanding her free trade doctrines; and for a very good reason: it would debase her agriculture, and make her dependent on others for food, which is slavery in its worst condition.

Sugar. This article furnishes another striking proof of the effects of supply and demand; and to it the attention of our Representatives in Congress should be specially called.

Report to the House of Commons, 5th May, 1841.—Importations for home consumption:

Years.	West Indies.	Mauritius.	Bengal.	Total.	Increase.	Decrease.	Average prices of West India sugars in September in each year.	
	Cwt.	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*s.*	*d.*
1833	3,655,612	529,352	..	4,184,974	..	..	32	10¾
1834	3,844,244	555,860	..	4,400,104	215,140	..	29	10½
1835	3,523,948	558,237	..	4,082,185	..	317,919	37	2
1836	3,600,517	497,303	155,229	4,250,049	167,864	..	35	5¾
1837	3,305,238	537,961	296,679	4,139,878	..	100,171	41	4½
1838	3,521,434	604,671	428,854	4,554,959	415,081	..	29	2
1839	2,823,931	612,586	518,925	3,955.442	..	599,517	40	2¼
1840	2,202,833	545,009	482,836	3,230,678	..	724,764	58	2

	Cwt.	*s.*	*d.*
Which shows that an over supply in 1834, compared to 1833 of ...	215,140		
Produced a decline of....................................	..	3	¼
That a short supply in 1835, compared to 1834, of................	317,810		
Produced an advance of....................................	..	7	11½
That an over supply in 1836, compared to 1835, of................	167,864		
Produced a decline of....................................	..	1	8¼
That a short supply in 1837, compared to 1836, of................	100,171		
Produced an advance of....................................	..	5	10¾
That an over supply in 1838, compared to 1837, of................	415,081		
Produced a decline of....................................	..	12	2½
That a short supply in 1839, compared to 1838, of................	599,517		
Produced an advance of....................................	..	11	¼
That a short supply in 1840, compared to 1839, of................	724,764		
Produced an advance of....................................	..	18 !!!	
Or 100 per cent. on the average prices of 1838 !!!			

And during the whole of the above period, the British tariff remained untouched for sugars, save the admission, in 1836, of Bengals for home consumption. What have you to say to this, anti-tariff advocates?

In 1833 the people of England received for their own consumption, from their own possessions, 4,184,964 cwt. of sugars, for which they paid £6,850,566.

In 1840, the emancipation of the West Indies reduced the annual supply of Great Britain 954,286 cwt., and the people had to pay for 3,210,678 cwt., about £9,385,115 sterling.

Was this the effect of the tariff, or of supplies and demand? But (may say the advocates of free trade) let England admit foreign sugars, and that commodity will be as cheap as ever. But she will do no such thing, because—

1. She would thereby complete the ruin of her West India proprietors.
2. She would be thwarting her own prospects in the East.

And even if she were to admit foreign sugars for home consumption, it would be under a heavier tariff than ever adopted in the United States, and the effect of such a measure would be to advance the price of sugars by their being made scarcer in other parts. The free trade advocated by her she has always taken, and will ever take, very good care not to put in practice. She is too patriotic to act otherwise. This doctrine she has launched forth to the world, that she might, by debasement of foreign labor, obtain the monopoly of the manufacturing power, (see McCulloch, page 419,) and her emancipation of the West India slaves has had no other object than the destruction of the cotton power of the United States, that through her East India possessions she may obtain the monopoly of that important commodity. Do you doubt this? Read Sir Robert Peel's speech at Tamworth: "Our possessions (says the Baronet) in the East Indies, offer means of acquiring a supply of sugar to an almost indefinite extent. In this case we need not run the risk of forfeiting the character we have already acquired at such an immense sacrifice, by the abolition of slavery and the slave-trade, for we have a prospect of an increased supply of sugar from the West Indies, [doubtful] and a new supply from the East Indies, produced by free labor. These considerations lead me to the conclusion that it is not necessary to open the markets of England to sugar, the produce of slave-labor."

What will be the action of the British government, the moment they can obtain even a reasonable supply of cotton from their East India *freemen?* Why, the British markets will be as effectually closed against American cottons, the produce of slave-labor, as they are at present against foreign sugar, the produce of slave-labor!

Another example, and one of great interest to Louisiana, to prove that supply and demand rule prices, and I have done.

Average prices of Cuba Muscovado sugars during a period of ten years. (Havana prices current.)

1830—	6	*a*	8	reals	per arroba—	3	*a*	4	cents	per pound
1831—	5	*a*	6	"	"	2½	*a*	3	"	"
1832—	6½	*a*	7½	"	"	2¾	*a*	3¾	"	"
1833—	4¾	*a*	6	"	"	2⅜	*a*	3	"	"
1834—	5¾	*a*	7½	"	"	2⅞	*a*	3¾	"	"
1835—	8	*a*	9¼	"	"	4	*a*	4⅝	"	"
1836—	12½	*a*	14	"	"	6⅛	*a*	7!!	"	"
1837—	5	*a*	8	"	"	2½	*a*	4	"	"
1838—	7	*a*	8½	"	"	3½	*a*	4½	"	"
1839—	6½	*a*	8	"	"	3¼	*a*	4	"	"

Importations of foreign sugars in the United States during a period of ten years.—(Official reports to Congress.)

1830	$4,636,342
1831	4,910,877
1832	2,933,688
1833	4,755,856
1834	5,538,425
1835	6,806,625

Importations of foreign sugars continued.

1836	$12,514,718 !!!
1837	7,203,206
1838	7,586,825
1839	6,970,240

McCulloch estimates the total product of sugar annually to be 508,000 tons, say 1,143,000,000 pounds. The average product of Louisiana is about 70,000 hogsheads, or 70,000,000 pounds, or a fraction under six and a fifth of the whole product. Yet trifling as this appears to be, an early winter at the close of 1835 having reduced the crop of Louisiana to 25,000 hogsheads, prices for 1836 immediately advanced from five to six cents, the usual price in New-Orleans, to 11 cents; and in Cuba, where the crop had been a large one, from 4 and 4⅝ cents to 6½ and 7 cents!! and the importations of foreign sugars into the United States that year amounted to $12,514,718!! say $5,708,093 more than any previous year, for which the people had to pay specie, for the extra import from the West Indies could not have created there an extra demand for our provisions; and provisions are very nearly the only articles taken in exchange for the coffee and sugar we import. The season from 1836 to 1837 was favorable to Louisiana; an average crop was produced, and again prices receded to 5 to 6 cents in New-Orleans, and in Cuba to 3½ to 4 cents; and our imports from foreign countries fell short of the previous year $5,311,512, the difference being supplied by our own labor.

Again, I repeat, what do you say to all this, anti-tariff advocates? It has been shown in a previous paper, that, per statement in the House of Commons, a short supply of 954,286 cwt., compared to the ordinary supply of 4,184,964 cwt., required for the consumption of Great Britain, advanced prices nearly one hundred per cent; and it is now seen that a short supply of about 45,000 hogsheads, compared to the ordinary crops of Louisiana, advanced prices in Havana about sixty per cent., and in the United States, for Louisiana sugars, about one hundred per cent!! and that, to supply this deficiency, the people of the United States had to export $5,311,512 of specie to pay for the sugars required.

These are not idle theories but facts, for the meditation of legislators.

The planters of Louisiana, under the faith of the protection granted to home labor in 1816, and relying upon a continuation of the same rate of duties, so long as it was necessary to raise revenue through imports from foreign countries, gradually invested large amounts in the culture of the sugar cane. In 1828, the number of estates, then numbering 308, was increased to 698, which required a further outlay of $16,000,000; making a total outlay of upwards of $50,000,000. In 1832, the quantity of foreign sugars required for our home consumption, was reduced to a little less than $3,000,000; a few years more, and Louisiana could have been able to supply the Union with the whole quantity required for home consumption; but England, ever jealous of our prosperity, was at work, and the compromise bill came upon the poor sugar planter as a clap of thunder.

And what has been the effect? One hundred and fifty-six sugar estates have already been turned into rice and cotton fields, and the country is now paying nearly $4,000,000 more for foreign sugars per annum. Let the work of destruction, contemplated by those who considered our glorious Union a secondary condition compared to the attainment of their end, be carried into full effect, and the consumers of sugars, and the cotton and rice planters, will be made to suffer with a vengeance for the madness of our theorists. The moment we become dependent upon the West Indies for our sugars, we shall have to submit to the old prices of 11 and 12 cents, and to export 12 to $15,000,000, if not more, to pay for the same; and who can predict the decline in the price of cotton and rice, by the transfer from the culture of the sugar cane to that of these two articles of 40,000 hands now employed in the sugar business? There is, however, no accounting for the folly of men. A representative of Louisiana in Congress, was seen, during the last session, to vote for the free admission of foreign sugars; and *that at the very moment when, in the Chamber of Deputies in Spain, a proposal was pending for the closing of the Cuba and Porto Rico ports against the admission of our flour, which now pays a duty in those Islands of more than cent per cent. over its cost of production—say $11 50 per barrel.*

It has often been asserted that the culture of the cane was not congenial to Louisiana; this is altogether an error. Our crops are fully as regular as in any part of the West Indies. If we have to contend against early winters, the droughts so common in those islands are equally fatal to the cane. On an average, the Cuba planter produces six hogsheads of sugar to each working hand. There is not a well managed plantation in Louisiana, that does not yield, on an average, an equal number of hogsheads to each hand. The great advantage of the Cuba over the Louisiana planter, is not, as generally believed, in the climate, but in the difference of value of his hands, and of expenses to support them. In Louisiana, a good field hand is worth $1,000, and is provided with two meals of beef or pork per day throughout the year, besides corn, whiskey, tobacco, and two suits of clothes per annum, the cost of all which is about $75 on a well regulated plantation. In Cuba, a good field hand only costs $400, requires little or no clothing, and lives chiefly on roots and bananas, which are of a spontaneous growth. And this is the reason why sugar cannot be produced in Louisiana below five cents, whilst 4 cents is said to be about the cost of production in Cuba. Indeed, it cannot be denied, that the reduction in the duty on foreign sugars has been a bounty to slave traders. Let the slave trade be effectually put down, and then Louisiana sugars will require little or no protection; but until then it is needed; and whether considered in a national point of view, or as a matter of sheer justice to Louisiana, it cannot be refused without gross injustice.

It appears to me that if party feelings could be made to yield to patriotism; if representatives could open their eyes to all the evils grown out of our feuds, to the shattered condition of our constitution, to the disgrace attached to the American name throughout the world—if they could see how high we once stood among the nations of the earth, how low we now stand! if, in fine, in presence of calamities so great, they could be made to reflect that a trust has been placed in their hands, awful, if betrayed—partaking almost of divinity, if faithfully and nobly fulfilled—*a nation's welfare!*—they would soon arrive at the conviction—

1st. That to the benign influence of the tariff we owe our emancipation from foreign dependence, which is freedom.

2d. That as a revenue is to be raised to carry on our government, the general welfare of the Union requires that such revenue should be so arranged as to afford encouragement to our manufactures and agriculture, that our labor may not be debased by foreign labor.

3d. That by protecting our sugars against debasement by foreign sugars, we not only protect that branch of industry, but also cotton, rice, and all other agricultural products that can be raised in the southern states; by the simple reason that, should the want of effectual protection compel our sugar planters to abandon the culture of the cane, the 40,000 hands now employed by them would carry depreciation in cotton, rice, or any other agricultural product, by excess of production, whilst the Union would be placing itself again on the dependence of foreign countries for a necessary of life already requiring thirteen to fourteen millions dollars per annum. That effectual protection, on the contrary, so that 5 per cent. might be reasonably depended upon for sugars, would soon enable the planters of Louisiana to increase the culture of the cane, to the full annual demand of the country—say about 250,000,000 of pounds—which would require 60,000 hands more, at least; who being supplied by the producers of cotton, or any other product, would reduce the excess of production in the latter articles, and advance their value accordingly.

4th. That in fine, there is not a branch of industry in our country which is not directly or indirectly benefitted by a tariff judiciously laid; and by far the greatest proportion of such benefit is derived by our own operatives and laborers.

Conclusion. A few queries having been put to the author of this paper, on the workings of the tariff, and other points connected with it, he takes this opportunity of giving them publicity, together with his answers, which come as a conclusion of the subject he has attempted to treat:

Query 1. "What are the advantages of specific duties?

In a moral and constitutional point of view, they are incalculable; there is not an article of traffic which cannot be brought to a fixed rule, as to quality, capacity, or value, ascertainable on every point, so as to work with uniformity. Duties being made specific, fraud on the part of the importers is effectually checked, and uniformity in the law can be secured. Duties ad valorem, on the oath of importers, are uniform in their operation, and open such a door to fraud, that I venture to say, more perjuries are committed in one day in our customs, than in all our courts of justice throughout the Union in one year. It must be a well known fact to the treasury, that the very same goods are entered in different ports at different prices. It was a common practice in Manchester, some years ago, to invoice ad valorem goods at two thirds of their value, for some of our customs; an addition of 50 per cent. indicated the real cost to the importer. New-York is much more indebted to the ad valorem duty, and the local partiality of its revenue officers for its heavy import trade, than to its geographical position.

Query 2. " What are the advantages of cash duties?"

Cash duties will most effectually check over-trading, by putting a stop to excessive importations, made, not with a view to a legitimate profit, but for the purpose of getting rid of surplus production, which being sold without reference to its cost, works the debasement of our own labor, or of raising a capital out of the credit granted on the duties; a system fraught with danger, and which must ever keep any commercial community following it in a feverish condition; to this cause, mainly, may be attributed the fluctuations in our exchanges.

Query 3. " What duty should be laid on foreign sugars?"

Three cents on Muscovadoes, and others in proportion. And this cannot be considered unreasonable, when it is observed, that by the compromise bill, a duty of twenty-five cents on a valuation of thirty-five cents per square yard, is now charged on all cotton goods, thus excluding most completely from our markets all low goods, which form the three-fourths of our cotton manufactures; for instance, sheetings of the value of *5d.* in Manchester, per square yard, are equal to the same goods manufactured in Lowell for ten and eleven cents; on such goods the duty is eight and three-fourths cents! Our flour, in Havana, as before said, pays a duty of eleven dollars and fifty cents per barrel.

Remarks.—By cash duties, is meant duties on the delivery of the goods. Should the cash system be adopted, the warehousing system should be at the same time established, and three years be granted to the importers to dispose of their goods; the trade of the country would soon conform itself to this regulation, as in Havana, England, France, and other places, and then duties would be paid by the consumers of the goods as wanted, which would greatly tend to a return to legitimate business. And as to the revenue, the falling off could only be temporary, and of a short duration, when it would assume a regularity heretofore unknown; and all goods being brought to the public stores, and examined as delivered, a stop would be effectually put to frauds, which have of late years deprived the government of sums that would be more than sufficient to cover the whole of its present debt.

The people should be protected against their own folly, by taxation on all articles of luxury; and, in re-modelling the tariff, the following inquiries should be made:

1st. What are articles of luxury?

2d. What are the articles competing with our home manufactures and agriculture?

3d. What are the rates of duty required to insure a remunerating price to the manufacturer and agriculturist, guarding the consumer at the same time against artificial prices?

A tariff based upon such principles, it is believed, would soon restore harmony and confidence in the nation.

NEW-ORLEANS, 1st December, 1841.

SKETCH OF CALIFORNIA.

For the following interesting sketch of California, we are indebted to Alfred Robinson, Esq., of this City, author of a very popular work called "Life in California," recently published by Messrs. Wiley & Putnam, Broadway. Mr. Robinson resided a considerable time in that country, was a close observer, and both in the work above mentioned, and in this little sketch, has spread before his fellow citizens an amusing and instructive account of a part of the Western Continent, which is increasingly attracting public attention.

The extensive tract of country comprised under this name, constitutes, at present, part of the Mexican Republic, and was once included in the Vice-royalty of New Spain. It extends from Cape St. Lucas, along the border of the great Pacific Ocean, to the forty second degree of north latitude, and is bounded on the east by the Gulf of California, the River Colorado, and the Indian territory.

La Vieja, or Old California, was discovered in 1534, by an expedition fitted out by Hernan Cortes. It consisted of two ships, commanded by Hernando Grigalba and Diego Bercerra de Mendoza, who being separated during the first night of their voyage were unable to prosecute their discoveries together. Senor Grigalba, after navigating three hundred leagues north of Tehuantepec, made land near the southern extremity of California and returned to New Spain. Bercerra, less fortunate, was murdered by Ortun Jimenex, his pilot, who took the lead of a mutinous faction on board, and fearing the wrath of Cortes, continued his voyage in search of other land. Arriving at a place called afterwards *La Bahia de Santa Cruz*, he landed and was attacked by the Indians, in which conflict he and twenty others perished; thus receiving the just penalty of their wickedness. The crew returned to New Spain with the ship, and reported favorably of their discoveries, which determined Cortes to superintend in person another expedition, wherein he ascertained that California was not an island as had been supposed. Other subsequent attempts to explore the country were made by the Viceroys of New Spain, but no important effort for its settlement took place until the years 1596 and 1602. The method of colonization by the Spaniards, was by establishing missionary posts, and in converting the Indians to Christianity, whom they located at the various points of their religious conquests. In this performance the primitive fathers suffered many trials, and in many instances martyrdom. Yet, notwithstanding, their hopes were at length realized, and they triumphantly beheld the subjugation of the whole country to the banner of the cross.

Alta, or Upper California, was first visited by Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo, a Portuguese, under the patronage of the Viceroy Senor Don Antonio Mendoza. Cabrillo set sail on a voyage to the north on the 27th June, 1542, and anchored at most of the ports along the coast as far as the forty-fourth degree of latitude; but no particular attention was drawn to the settling and colonizing the country, until the expulsion of the Jesuits from Lower California, in 1767. The year following, it was resolved on by the Marquis de Croix, when Father Junipero Serra received the appointment of missionary president. Sixteen brothers of the same order accompanied Father Junipero, some of whom were destined to replace the Jesuits in Lower California. This holy brotherhood sailed from San Blas on the 12th March, 1768, and arriving at San Diego some time in May, 1769, they commenced their apostolic labors. The great length of time intervening from the date of their departure until that of their arrival in Alta California, was partially occupied at the port of Loreto. A military force, under the command of Don Gaspar de Portala, was sent for the protection of the missionaries, and the same plan of colonization and government was observed as in the colonization of Lower California. During the administration of Father Junipero, which continued until his death, in 1782, there were established eight missions, and afterwards under other management the number was increased to twenty one. As these religious institutions flourished, the directors of them were occasionally succoured by remittances from the Spanish government, and important donations were made, and numerous estates were bequeathed in lands and houses, for the benefit of the missions, which were held as a fund, known in Mexico as *La Fonda Piadosa de California.* This fund was managed by the Convent of San Fernando, and the proceeds, as well as the salaries of the missionaries, to whom were assigned the sum of four hundred dollars per annum, were remitted annually to California.

The prevailing style of architecture observed in erecting the missionary establishments, has been faithfully described in a work entitled "Life in California," but it may be interesting to know how or in what manner they were conducted in the administration of their temporal as well as spiritual government. The domains were always extensive—often from twenty to thirty square leagues, and divided out into separate farms for domesticating cattle and for cultivation. The control over those estates and the principal establishments was effected by a few soldiers and a sergeant, who were subject to the friars, and whose *quartel* or barracks were immediately opposite the front entrance. The Indians were taught many trades, and a variety of things proved their progress in the arts. They manufactured blankets, carpeting, and a coarse fabric of woollen for clothing; they also made hats, shoes, and other necessary articles. Notwithstanding their immense resources at home, they were yearly supplied with large quantities of merchandise by foreign vessels, many of their establishments making purchases to the amount of forty and fifty thousand dollars, which were freely distributed among the Indians, so that they were clad, most of them, after the manner of the Spaniards. The Indians, as well as the priests, rose with the sun and went to mass, which lasted about an hour. During this ceremony the breakfast was prepared, which was usually their favorite *atole* or pottage, with boiled dried meat. After breakfast they went to their labors either in the workshop or the field. At noon the tolling of a bell announced the hour for dinner, when the Indians quitted their work, and repaired to receive their rations as at breakfast time. After dinner they returned to their work until the evening ceremony of prayer, when all repaired to the church, and the supper of *atole* wound up the performances of the day. The girls and widows were kept in separate rooms while at work during the day, and at night the unmarried of both sexes were locked up separately; the keys being delivered always to the missionary, who severely chastised any breach of this custom when detected. Thus the Indians were happy, and venerated the men who had made them so.

The immense herds and flocks belonging to the missionaries yearly increased their resources, and they became of important account to the government, inasmuch as it was almost entirely dependent on them. At many of the establishments I saw accounts against the government amounting to over one hundred thousand dollars, besides many large amounts owed by individuals, who were never expected to pay them. This did not, however, affect the missions nor weaken them in the least, for their possessions were continually increasing, and they were prosperous indeed. But alas! this state of things exists no longer. Since 1834 the priests have been deprived of their property, and the missions have been entirely destroyed, under the scandalous administration of certain hirelings of the government. The following returns of 1834 and 1842, may be interesting:

"1. In 1834 the Indian population of the 21 missions amounted to 30,650; in 1842, to 4,450.

"2. In the former year the number of horned cattle was 424,000; in the latter, 28,220.

"3. At the same period the number of sheep, goats and pigs, was 321,500; at the latter, 31,600.

"4. In 1834, the number of horses, asses, mules, &c., was 62,500; in 1842, it was 3,800.

"5. The produce in corn, &c. has decreased in a much greater proportion—that of 70 to 4."

These facts will prove the blind zeal on the part of the government, in its imprudent measures for secularizing the missions, which have caused such results, and the return of the Indians to their old customs in the mountains.

For several years after the revolution broke out in Mexico in 1822, the white population of California was very limited, and could not have exceeded four thousand. At the different *Presidios* certain officers were appointed to receive such duties as might be obtained from any vessels arriving in their respective districts; and in this way the government received a small revenue, by imposing a trifling per centage on the value of the goods sold. The same practice continued till 1828, when Don Jose Maria de Eachandia was named commandant-general, who placed a collector at the port of San Diego, and other subordinate officers at Monterey and Santa Barbara. The Mexican tariff was now introduced, and the general government, to encourage the settlement of the Californias, awarded that two-fifths of the duties established, should be deducted on all goods landed in that country of foreign importation. This regulation, however, has ceased to exist, and the importer is now obliged to pay the full extent of the tariff rate, which on some articles amounts to over one hundred and fifty per cent. on their first cost.

The nett amount of revenue seldom exceeded, in any year, over eighty thousand dollars, so that when a deficiency took place, to supply the expenditures of government, it had been usual to call upon the missions for aid. Mexico would have had to have remitted annually, *if it had paid its debts and its soldiers*, over one hundred thousand dollars, of which the exchequer fell short, to defray the actual expenses of the country. This may be quite sufficient to show the important standing which the missions held towards sustaining the government, and how enfeebled it must have become since their ruin.

Since 1836, when the Californians drove out the Mexicans, the country has undergone many changes. Numbers of new farms have been created by the division of the mission estates, and hundreds of Englishmen and Americans are scattered over the extent of their domains. There were very few farmers previous to 1830, whose actual possessions of horned cattle did not exceed one hundred thousand. In 1842, there were no less than ninety-two *ranchcros* located between the ports of San Diego and San Luis Obispo. These persons possessing, on an average, one thousand bullocks each, making an aggregate of ninety-two thousand. From San Luis Obispo towards the north, the farms are more numerous, and may be supposed to contain treble the number of cattle contained southward of that point; so we may safely estimate the whole number of horned cattle held by individuals in the whole country, at four hundred thousand.

The yearly number of cattle slaughtered seldom exceeded fifty thousand, which left a large increase; so that, with care and attention, in a very short time the number must overreach that ever held by the missions, even in their most flourishing condition. The value of the hides and tallow derived from these annual slaughters, may be estimated at three hundred and seventy-two thousand dollars. These two commodities, with the exception of some beaver, sea otter, and other furs, comprise the most important part of their exportations, which, in addition, would augment the value of exports to four hundred thousand dollars per annum. The greater portion of these items find their way to the United States, either direct or via Sandwich Islands or Lima; the Yankees being the principal participants in the trade with California.

No mercantile houses of any importance are yet established in the country, owing to the impolitic advantages given to foreign navigation, which permit the coasting trade, and give license for the disposal of merchandize without restriction as to quantity. Hence each vessel becomes a moving warehouse, which is dispatched about, from port to port, according to the demand for their merchandize; and no one thinks of buying anything on shore, while these floating conveniences are at hand. As it may be supposed, this method of non-protection to home trade, is of serious injury to the country, inasmuch as it prevents the introduction of capitalists, and the establishment of them on shore. This detriment to the prosperity of California, however, is not unknown to its government, and it has made several unsuccessful attempts to regulate and reform the system. Weak and unstable in their government, the Californians have ever wavered from their decrees, and though certain restrictions have been levied again and again upon foreign commerce, they seldom continued long enough to give any encouragement. This has been owing to the poverty of the treasury, and the lack of means possessed by government to support itself without the aid of foreign commerce, which is the only source of revenue whereby it is sustained. A reform can only be effected by shutting the ports, and imposing a direct tax upon individual property, which to accomplish the government has not sufficient force; and for that reason California must remain as it is, subject to a thousand changes, until some other and more elevated power shall rule its destiny. In the small villages almost every house is a place for retailing merchandize; and during the harvest for grapes, while distilling *aguardiente*, all of them become grog-shops, and serve out destruction to the Indians, who are the principal consumers.

Of late years the cultivation of the grape has become an important branch of agriculture, and almost every inhabitant of any note in the town of *los Angeles* has his vineyard. No particular attention was drawn to its culture to any extent, until Monsieur Louis Vigne, a native of France, successfully undertook the management of a partially abandoned vineyard, which he purchased for one hundred and fifty dollars. Mons. Vigne emigrated to California in 1834, and six years afterwards, when desirous of leaving the country, he was willing to make a *sacrifice*, and offered his estate for sale for the sum of twenty thousand dollars. The soil, he says, for this kind of culture, is not surpassed anywhere; and is infinitely superior to that of his own country. Nothing is wanted but intelligent persons to make wine of an excellent quality, which would readily find a market in Mexico, and the neighboring countries where the vine is not cultivated.

The climate is well adapted to the olive, which is quite abundant, and when well-prepared, not inferior to that of Europe. In some parts of the country rice may be raised, and cotton and tobacco thrive to perfection. The natives understand well enough the art of cultivating them, but are too indolent to pay that strict attention which they require. Many kinds of fruit are produced in their gardens, such as apples, pears, peaches, plums, oranges, citrons, limes, pomegranates, figs, &c., and in fact, every attempt towards agriculture has succeeded.

In the spring of the year, during the months of May and June, the plains and hills are variegated with flowers, and the whole country becomes a garden. It is one of the most enchanting sights imaginable to look upon its extensive prairies, carpeted, as they are, with millions of beautiful and fragrant blossoms; so arranged in nature's grand kaleidescope as to call forth admiration from the beholder, and his reverence and love for the great author of such magnificence. The air becomes perfumed with their sweetness, and as the heavy tramp of the traveller's steed presses upon them, an exquisite fragrance rises, which is borne away by the winds to the hills and mountains, to mingle with the sweets which they exhale. Indeed, there is more loveliness and beauty in such a scene, than my humble self can delineate. I recollect a spot in the rear of the Mission of San Gabriel, where the flowers are of so rich a vermillion, as to be seen distinctly from the ship's place of anchorage at San Pedro, from whence they appear like a velvet covering to the earth. This is a distance of over thirty miles, and it may seem to the reader almost incredible; but nevertheless it is truth, and may be witnessed, year after year, without any decrease in beauty.

The hills and the woods abound with many kinds of wild fruits, among which are gooseberries, blackberries, whortleberries and strawberries. The latter vary in their appearance and flavor according to their locality; those found in the northern parts of the country being inferior in size, but sweeter. Raspberries are also to be met with, in quality equal to the English ones; but the most abundant of all is the *mora* or blackberry.

The soil of California is rich, and aided by the mild temperature of its climate, extremely productive for all kinds of grain; admitting of two crops in one season. From the parallel of San Luis Obispo, northward, the highlands are topped with pines, while the green plains beyond them are plentifully supplied with oak; the former, in some sections of the country, growing to an immense size, with long cones hanging from their branches, containing *pinones* or seeds, which are collected by the Indians at their proper season, and become an important article of their food. Other classes of trees are found in the forests, of which the ash, beach and maple, comprise the greater portion.

The feature of the mountains extending through California gives a dreary aspect to the country, till arriving near the confines of Monterey, where they are wooded, and less accompanied with volcanic appearances. Their average height is about twenty-two hundred feet, rising in some places almost directly from the sea, so as to leave but a narrow strip between them and the beach. The woods are abundant in wild game, and the rivers and bays supply the inhabitants with fish of many kinds.

California, viewed as a maritime station, has not its equal on the whole western coast of America. Her principal ports, which are San Francisco and San Diego, afford the most secure anchorage for the largest fleets, with facilities for establishing wharves, docks and arsenals. The former harbor is so situated as to require but little labor to make it one of the strongest fortified places in the world; for the rocky cliffs which form its narrow entrance, combined with other prominent locations within, seem as if intended by nature for defence. There are numerous small islands scattered about the bay, and one of them affords an abundant supply of fresh water, and convenient locations for heaving out vessels for coppering or for repairs. . The Blossom, a British sloop of war, was grounded here some years ago and thoroughly overhauled. A harbor possessing such advantages, must, or ought to, attract the attention of the United States Government; and if the importance of her commercial interests in the Pacific Ocean requires a place of shelter for her thousands of vessels, which are yearly floating upon those waters, then let *San Francisco* be the one, in preference to any other port! How can it be acquired, will be the inquiry, or negotiated for, while we are, as it were, waging war against Mexico, thus shutting out all means for negotiation? My answer is, that California will negotiate for herself soon, and perhaps ere now she has dared to proclaim her independence, and may be at this moment prepared for any arrangement with the United States. Let our government look to this important issue, and secure, if possible, such an acquisition as *San Francisco* would become to our glorious republic.

Gold and silver mines have been found in California, from which considerable quantities of ore have been obtained; and recently, during the present year, one of quicksilver has been discovered. The last is now worked on a small scale, and produces one sixth of metal from the ore. Any quantity of copper ore can be had in the Bay of Todas Santos, which requires skilful miners only to make it profitable.

The arrival of Captain Freemont in California, must soon cause a vast change in the commerce of the country, and perhaps, ere long, our enterprising Yankees will be flocking there in thousands with team loads of merchandise. The captain has discovered a route which is eight hundred miles shorter than the one formerly travelled by our hunting parties, and the whole distance through has not the slightest obstruction for vehicles.

As statistical information is peculiarly adapted to this periodical, I am induced to annex some extracts from returns kindly furnished me by our Consul at Monterey, which will serve to denote the extent of its present commerce, and I trust prove interesting to its readers.

Review of the Foreign and Coastwise Shipping, entered at the Port of Monterey, California, for the year ending December 31st, 1845.

No.	Nation.	Crew.	Tonnage.	Designation	No.	Class.	No.
27	American,	482	9,455	Ships of war	5	Ships,	23
18	Mexican,	205	2,620	Whale ships,	5	Barks,	17
4	English,	66	966	Merchant ships,	48	Brigs,	8
3	German,	33	525			Schrs.	10
3	French.	75	756				
3	Haiwainian,	24	848				
58		885	14,650		58		58

The above is exclusive of crews and tonnage of ships-of-war.

Classification of duties received at the Custom House in Monterey during the year 1844.

From *Mexican* vessels, coastwise from San Blas and Mazatlan	5,194 00
From *American* vessels from the United States and Sandwich Islands	69,325 00
From two *Russian*, one *French*, and one *Haiwainian* vessel	13,219 00
	$78,729 00

Amount of Duties received at the Custom House in Monterey, California, from 1839 *to* 1845:

1839	85,613 00
1840	72,308 00
1841	101,150 00
1842	73,729 00
1843	52,000 00
1844	78,739 00
1845	138,360 00
	$601,899 00
Average per year,	85,985 00

INTERESTING COMMUNICATION

RELATING TO THE PROGRESS OF MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS IN THE EASTERN STATES.

To the Editor of the National Magazine.

Dear Sir:—I have just returned from a tour in some of the manufacturing towns to the eastward, and enclose you a table of statistics, showing the extent to which manufactures are carried on, which at this momentmay prove both useful and interesting.

It is quite impossible that any one can imagine the beneficial results derived from the introduction of manufactures, without a visit to the places in which they are located. The advantages are by no means confined to the number directly employed, but the still greater number indirectly supported through their means. Take, for instance, the village of Somerworth Great Falls, in New-Hampshire; its population is 4000, all of whom are dependent on the mills for their sustenance, although but 1600 are actually employed in manufacturing. Again, think of the number of agricultural hands employed to produce sustenance for the 4000. Then there is the intimate connection existing between the shipping and coasting trade, and the manufacturing interest. Who then will attempt to deny that the measure which injures one, will materially affect the others. However, you have already so ably sustained these views, that I do not feel called upon to do more than allude to them.

At Saco, the Laconia Manufacturing Company have completed a mill which is now ready to receive 12,096 spindles and 400 looms, which will give employment to between 3 and 400 extrahands, and the foundation has been laid for another of the same size, for the same company. The Water-Power Company erect mills and fit up machinery in the same manner as the Lock and Canal Company at Lowell.

The Cocheco Company are now building another mill at Dover, capable of receiving 12,800 spindles and 432 looms, and have recently erected a printery on a very large scale.

The mill at Salem is upwards of 400 feet long by 65 wide, and is the largest cotton mill in the Union. It is to be worked by steam, and has been built under the superintendence of General James, who may be considered the founder of the system, he having first introduced it at Newburyport, at which place I was made acquainted with a fact which speaks volumes in its favor, namely, that in the Bartlett Mills, one engine has been working for seven years, and the other for five, and during that entire period the mill has never been delayed one day. Can the same assertion be made respecting any mill worked by water?

The mill at Portsmouth, when completed, will take the lead of all the centre buildings now ready to receive machinery, being 200 feet long and 75 wide, and will hold 24,000 spindles and 400 looms. It is intended to add two wings, each of which will be 150 feet long, making the entire length 500 feet.

The manufacture to be carried on in it is quite new in this country, being for Jaconet and fancy muslins, and fine goods.

Boston, May 1, 1846. Yours truly, T. G. B.

Statistics of Manufactures in the New-England States.

Names of Owners or Companies.	No. of Mills or Establishments.	No. of Spindles.	No. of Looms.	Quantity of Cotton annually used.	Yards of Cloth made per annum.	Description.	Gross value of manufactured Goods.	No. of hands employed.	Horse power of steam machinery.	Tons of coal consumed each year.	AGENTS.
Saco—Maine.											
York Manufacturing Comp'y..	4	23,040	763	2,473,380	7,044,765	twilled goods	$474,220	1100	water	1000	Samuel Batchelder.
Laconia Comp'y.............	1	11,520	300	1,050,000	3,012,000	fine jeans.	240,000	310	do	300	Otis Holmes.
Water Power Comp'y.......	1	......	......	....	....	{ buildings { machinery	150,000	276	do	75	Rufus Nichols.
Williams Foundry...........	1	......	......	....	....	castings	35,000	22	do	170	Managed by owner.
South Berwick—N. H.											
Portsmouth Comp'y..........	1	6912	216	1,000,000	2,750,000	sheetings	220,000	230	do	200	Samuel Hale.
Salmon Falls Manufact Comp'y	1	12,096	364	2,212,600	5,344,000	sheetings and drills	425,646	403	do	300	P. Lawton.
Somersworth Great Falls Manufacturing Company..	5	55,988	1539	4,000,000	14,500,000	sheetings, shirtings, printing cloths & drills	$1,056,000	1600	do	300	J. Burley.
Dover—N. H											
Cocheco Manufactu'g Comp'y.	3	31,776	967	1,400,000	7.200,000	printing cloths	834,600	1250	do	3000	Moses Paul.
Do. Printery.............	1	"	"	"	7,200,000	printed					
Exeter—N. H.											
Newmarket Manufacturing Company..............	3	18,000	521	1,580,000	4,200,000	sheetings	360,000	700	do	300	Benjamin Wheatland.
Exeter Manufactur'g Comp'y.	1	5,120	175	520,000	1,960,000	do	104,000	212	do	200	J. Low.
James Derby, Machinist......	1		120 tns	of cast'gs	....	....	56,000	40	10	....	Managed by owner.

Portsmouth—N. H.											
Portsmouth Steam Factory....	1	24,000	400	just man	commencin ufacture fin	g operations, intend e lawns and muslins	ing to	....	150	1000	Jeremiah S. Young.
Hosea Crane..................	1	900	54	2,000lbs 50,000lbs	cotton. wool.	hosiery	40,000	150	15	150	Managed by owner.
Jasper Crane..................	1	620	15	3,000lbs 40,000lbs	cotton. wool.	do	32,000	100	8	150	Do.
S. Gookin & Co., Machinists...	1		com	mencing	business as	Machinists.	....	40	16	200	Do.
J. Winn....................	1	......	......	do	do	....	....	10	6	75	Do.
Pendexter & Barnes.........	1	......	......	do	do	....	....	6	8	70	Do.
Sam'l Gerrish & Co., Copper Smiths and Brass Founders.	1	......		20,000lbs 10,000lbs	metals. iron.	....	....	6	4	*50	Do.
Baker & Co., Founders and Machinists...............	1	280	tons of	castings.	....	....	18,000	20	8	200	Do.
J. S. Heselton, Foundry......	1	130	tons of	castings.	....	....	....	10	4	100	Do.
Newburyport.											
Globe Steam Mill............	1	13,000	320	receiv'g	machinery into opera	and going tion.	....	3 to 400	300	2000	A. Warren.
Ocean do do	1	8,064	216	do	do		....	200	100	700	B. Saunders.
James do do	1	16,000	348	420,000	1,800,000	fine shirtings	250,000	360	155	1200	Charles J. Brockway, Treasurer.
Bartlett do do	2	17,000	367	504,000	2,000,000	shirtings & sheetings	220,000	410	2E 140	1200	Eben Stone.
Essex do do	1	6,720	173	294,000	1,600,000	printing cloths	100,000	140	80	600	William C. Balch.
M. Wormstead & Son, Cordage Factory..........	1	150	tons A	mer. hem	p used.	....	25,000	30	80	600	Managed by owner.
Enoch Huse, Cigar Factory...	1	150 200	hhds. bales	Amer. to Foreign	bacco mak do	ing 7,000,000 cigars. 6,000lbs. snuff	30,000	100	80	"	Do.
L. P. Ingraham, Machinist....	1	40	tons of	castings.	....	....	20,000	30	30	200	Do.
Edw. S. Leslie, do.	1	100	do	do	....	....	40,000	36	8	150	Do.
Naumkeag Manufacturing Co Salem..................	1	30,000	650	ready to com	receive ma mence	chinery, will soon operations.	....	....	400	3000	
Amesbury Woollen Manufacturing Company.......	1	Cards 17	105	lb. 400,000		flannels, satinetts, tweeds	325,000	180	water		Joshua Aubin.

* 2000 Bushels charcoal.

INTERESTING MEMORANDA

ACCOMPANYING THE FOREGOING LETTER.

MOUSELAINE DE LAINES.

The manufacture of this article, now in its infancy in this country, has so far succeeded, as to render it certain that it can be made and sold at a less price than that imported from Europe, if the protective duty be continued.

The proprietors of the Manchester mills, with a capital of $1,000,000, have recently completed in Manchester, New-Hampshire, the largest building in the United States, for manufacturing purposes, being 440 feet long, and about 65 feet wide, and are now fitting it with machinery capable of making per day 625 pieces of de laine, of 30 yards each, and when completed, can turn out 1000 pieces per day.

The fabric to be made will consist of cotton and wool; of the former, they will consume about 500,000 lbs. of the very best quality. Of wool, about 1,000,000 lbs. will be required.

The company have also erected a printery, capable of printing 1000 pieces per day. The mill and print works will go into immediate operation, and will give employment to about 1400 hands.

SILK TRADE.

The annexed returns will show the increase in the manufacture of silk during the last few years in two states only.

Towns.	In 1842.	In 1845.
Canton, Massachusetts	1,144 lbs.	5,200 lbs.
Boston, do	000	3,900
Dedham, do	000	5,200
South Woburn, do	000	3,900
Needham, do	000	1,300
Northampton, do	000	6,500
Mansfield, Connecticut,	3,120	13,420
Willington, do	1,000	3,800
Manchester, do	000	2,600
Windsor, do	000	1,300
	5,264 lbs.	47,120 lbs.

Increase in manufacture from 1842 to 1845, 41,856 lbs., or nearly 800 per cent.; and yet, in the face of this enormous increase, Mr. Walker proposes raising the duty on the raw material, and lowering the duty on the manufactured article, to such an extent as would completely destroy the trade.

FALL RIVER IRON WORKS.

As very many of our readers may be unaware of the extent to which the manufacture of iron is carried on in the eastern states, we subjoin a statement, showing the consumption and product of the iron works at Fall River, Massachusetts.

The establishment comprises,

1 Rolling Mill, 412 feet long, by 100 feet wide.
1 Nail Mill, 226 feet long, by 44 feet wide.
1 Foundry.
4 double and 20 single Furnaces.
1 Air and 2 Cupola Furnaces.
79 Nail Machines.
3 Steam Engines in rolling-mill—200 horse power.
1 do in Nail Mill—90 do do.
1 do in Furnace, 30 do do.

The annual consumption of coal is 17,050 tons.

And they require during the same period,

7,750 tons pig iron,
5,580 tons of scrap iron,
620 tons of blooms and billetts.

The produce of which is, per annum,

100,750 casks of nails,
1,550 tons of castings,

6,200 tons of hoops, round and square iron, band iron, &c, and giving employment to about 520 hands.

The gross value of the manufactured goods for the past year is about $1,038,500.

Colonel Richard Borden is the agent and director of this extensive concern, and to his unceasing exertion and ability is mainly owing its success.

BOSTON SUGAR REFINERY.

In this well-regulated establishment, upwards of 8,000,000 lbs. of raw sugar annually undergoes the process of refining, employing about 100 hands, and a steam engine of 60 horse power. The consumption of coal is yearly about 3,000 tons—one of the many proofs that the South and West have something to do with the manufactures of the North and East.

VALUE OF SAVINGS BANKS.

In May, 1825, a widow deposited in the Portsmouth Savings Bank, $25; in February 1846, she had occasion for her money, and drew $78 16, the amount to which the original $25 had accumulated by interest.

VALUE OF MANUFACTURES.

Since the establishment of the steam cotton mill at Portsmouth, New-Hampshire, real estate has risen so much in value, in its immediate neighborhood, so as to more than pay the cost of the buildings, &c., erected, and a spirit of energy and life has been infused into this hitherto quiet town, that has quite surprised all connected with it.

TEST OF PROSPERITY.

In all of Sir Robert Peel's political projects, he has ever made the Savings Banks the test of the prosperity, or the contrary, of the working classes. Adopting the same view, we annex tables showing the increase since 1843, in deposites and amounts in Saco and Portsmouth.

	Years.	No. of Deposites.	Sums Deposited.
Portsmouth—N. H.	Feb. 1842	4,256	$220,686
	1843	4,611	217,676
	1846	6,022	336,960
Saco—Maine.	Jan. 1842	215	$29,667
	1843	221	27,765
	1846	347	48,157

Our readers will perceive that from January, 1842, to January 1843, before the Tariff came into active operation, in both towns there was a falling off in the amounts deposited, whilst from 1843 to 1846, the increase was in Portsmouth 55 per cent—in Saco nearly 75. With such facts, no comment from us is necessary.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

ON THE SUBJECT OF LIGHT-HOUSES.

At a regular meeting of the Chamber of Commerce, held at the Merchant's Bank, November 4th, 1845, the following report, submitted by Mr. James D. P. Ogden, was unanimously adopted, and a copy ordered to be transmitted to the Hon. the Secretary of the Treasury:

The Committee appointed "to inquire into the present condition of our public system of Light-Houses,"

RESPECTFULLY REPORT:

That the indispensable necessity of a liberal and efficient system of light-house service for a commercial people is universally admitted, and your committee are well aware that our government has long directed its attention to the improvement of our own. But, along so extensive a coast as ours, points of importance may sometimes be overlooked or neglected, and the management of a system which demands incessant watchfulness, and continual examination, may occasionally prove inefficient: or possibly those to whom the details are necessarily entrusted may sometimes omit to obtain, or perhaps to transmit information, which, if not obtained through their own means, must be furnished by others; and your committee naturally infer that the branch of the public service having this department under its charge, would always be willing to receive suggestions when the promotion of the public good is the only object in view.

The eastern coast of the United States is understood to be well lighted, but the extensive coast on the south and east line of Florida, along which the valuable commerce of the Gulf of Mexico passes, is extremely deficient in good and sufficient light-houses. The light on the Tortugas is too low, and of a very indifferent character. A buoy is wanted in the channel between Tortugas and the main, which is twelve miles wide in the narrowest part; there is no light on the south shore of Florida from Sand Key to Carysford-reef, a distance of 100 miles. The latter is a floating light, and quite inadequate. A light house with a large reflector that could be seen at a distance, is essentially required at this important point. From this reef to St. Augustine, a distance of 300 miles, there is no light-house; the tower only still stands of the one at Cape Florida, burned by the Indians in 1836. A good light on a high tower is imperiously required here, as the most frequented as well as most dangerous part of our whole coast. Another, and the last light wanted, is at Port Jupiter, when the Florida coast, as your committee think, would be well and sufficiently lighted. The passage between the two "Isaacs," on the Bahama Banks, is one that is now much frequented, but a buoy is required to direct the mariner through that channel; and it is supposed that an application from government would induce the British authorities to co-operate for this object. A light is deemed necessary on Execution Rock in the sound off Sands' Point, as this channel is attended with danger without this guide. The three small rocks forming a triangle off Whitehall, are very dangerous to the navigation of a river whose limits are continually encroached upon by the city: these rocks could easily be blown up and destroyed, and their removal has become a matter of urgent necessity. A beacon would be very useful on the south-east point of Romer Shoal, and it is suggested that the buoys in our bay should be numbered, beginning at the entrance of the harbor. New-York has had the benefit, for some years past, in the light-houses on the Highlands of Neversink, of lenses on the French plan, which your committee consider among the chief of modern improvements, combining economy, with great simplicity in arrangement and construction, and furnishing a light that can be seen by the mariner at sea nearly as far again as any light elsewhere existing on our coast. This plan of lenticular light, your committee understand, has been extensively adopted, not only by Great Britain and the northern powers of Europe, but its use seems gradually extending among all nations; and your committee may be excused for expressing their surprise that more notice has not been taken of this improvement, or that the plan has not been more extensively introduced into the service of the United States.

The point of Sandy Hook is gradually extending, and the sand is encroaching upon the main channel of the harbor; and your committee are of opinion that measures should speedily be taken to guard against the consequences of this encroachment. We are indebted to the survey of Professor Bache, superintendent of the coast survey, for this knowledge, and the committee think the thanks of the Chamber are due to him for his examination and report, presented to the Chamber, and for the attention he has paid to this important subject.

In submitting these views, your committee respectfully recommend the adoption of the following resolution:

Resolved, That in accordance with the recommendations and suggestions of the committee, a memorial be addressed to Congress, praying for the appointment of a Select Committee to inquire into the state of the light-house service of the United States, and into the expediency of increasing the number of light-houses, and introducing improvements into our system. New-York, 4th November, 1845.

Signed, JAMES D. P. OGDEN,
Chairman of the Committee.

RAIL ROADS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The following List comprises the Rail-Roads in the United States, as far as completed, and as far as the particulars are known to us. The omissions are, we believe, few and inconsiderable.

State.	Names.	Miles. in length.	Cost.
Maine	Portland, Saco and Portsmouth	50	$1,200,000
New-Hampshire	Concord	35	750,000
Massachusetts	Boston and Maine	73	1,941,164
do.	Boston and Lowell	26	1,863,746
do.	Boston and Providence	41	1,886,135
do.	Dedham Branch	2	
do.	Boston and Worcester	44	2,914,078
do.	Berkshire	21	250,000
do.	Charlestown Branch	1	280,260
do.	Eastern	54	2,388,621
do.	Fitchburg	50	1,500,000
do.	Nashua and Lowell	14½	380,000
do,	Northampton and Springfield	20	300,000
do.	Old Colony	37	1,000,000
do.	Quincy	4	50,000
do.	New-Bedford and Taunton	20	430,962
do.	Stoughton Branch	4	63,075
do.	Taunton Branch	11	250,000
do.	West Stockbridge	3	41,516
do.	Western	117	6,186,202
do.	Worcester *branch to Milbury*	3	8,431
Connecticut	Hartford and Springfield	25½	600,000
do.	Hartford and New-Haven	38	1,100,000
do.	Housatonic	74	1,244,123
do.	Norwich and Worcester	66	2,170,366
Rhode Island	Stonington	48	2,600,000
	Total in New-England	870	$31,398,689
New-York	Albany and West Stockbridge	39	1,500,000
do.	Attica and Buffalo	31	336,211
do.	Auburn and Rochester	78	1,796,342
do.	Auburn and Syracuse	26	766,657
do.	Buffalo and Niagara	22	200,000
do.	Harlæm	22	2,300,000
do.	Hudson and Berkshire	31	576,613
do.	Ithaca and Owego	29	500,000
do.	Lockport and Niagara Falls	24	200,000
do.	Long-Island	96	1,918,221
do.	Mohawk and Hudson	17	1,317,893
do.	New-York and Erie (opened)	53	1,800,000
do.	Rensselaer and Saratoga	25	475,801
do.	Saratoga and Schenectady	22	303,658
do.	Schenectady and Troy	20½	640,800
do.	Syracuse and Utica	53	1,115,897
do.	Tonawanda	43	727,332
do.	Troy and Greenbush	6	180,000
do.	Utica and Schenectady	78	2,168,165
New-Jersey	Camden and Amboy	61	3,200,000
do.	New-Brunswick Branch	26	
do.	Trenton Branch	8	
do.	Elizabethtown and Somerville	26	500,000
do.	Morris and Essex	20	400,000
do.	New-Jersey	34	2,000,000
do.	Paterson	16	500,000

State.	Names.	Miles in length.	Cost.
Pennsylvania	Beaver Meadow	26	150,000
do.	Blossburg and Corning	40	600,000
do.	Columbia (State work)	82½	4,204,969
do.	Portage do	36½	1,783,000
do.	Cumberland Valley	46	1,250,000
do.	Harrisburg and Lancaster	36	860,000
do.	Hazleton Branch	10	120,000
do.	Little Schuylkill	23	326,500
do.	Lackawanna	16	503,580
do.	Mauch Chunk	9	100,000
do.	Minehill and Schuylkill Haven	19½	396,117
do.	Lehigh and Susquehanna	20	1,250,000
do.	Norristown	20	800,000
do.	Philadelphia and Trenton	30	500,000
do.	Philadelphia and Baltimore	93	4,400,000
do.	Pottsville and Danville	29½	1,500,000
do.	Reading	94	9,457,570
do.	Schuylkill Valley	25	300,000
do.	Lykens Valley	16	170,000
do.	Williamsport and Elmira	25	400,000
Delaware	Frenchtown and Newcastle	16	600,000
Maryland	Baltimore and Ohio	188	7,623,600
do.	Baltimore and Susquehanna	58	3,000,000
do.	Baltimore and Washington	38	1,650,000
do.	Annapolis Branch	20	200,000
Virginia	Greensville and Roanoke	18	284,433
do.	Petersburgh	63	969,880
do.	Louisa	58	650,000
do.	Portsmouth and Roanoke	78½	1,454,171
do.	Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac	76	800,000
do.	Richmond and Petersburg	22½	700,000
do.	Winchester and Potomac	32	500,000
North Carolina	Raleigh and Gaston	87	1,600,000
do.	Wilmington and Raleigh	161	1,800,000
South Carolina	South Carolina	136	5,671,452
do.	Columbia Branch	66	
Georgia	Central	190	2,581,728
do.	Georgia	172	3,000,000
do.	Monroe	25	300,000
do.	Montgomery and West Point	89	500,000
Florida	Pensacola and Montgomery	40	500,000
do.	St. Joseph's	12	100,000
do	Tallahassee and St. Marks	22	130,000
Alabama	Tuscumbia and Decatur	46	450,000
Mississippi	Vicksburg and Jackson	45	450,000
do.	Jackson and Brandon	14	100,000
do.	Grand Gulf	7	50,000
do.	St. Francisville and Woodville	28	168,000
Kentucky	Lexington and Ohio	29	1,400,000
Ohio.	Little Miami	40	400,000
do.	Mad River and Lake Erie	65	1,000,000
do.	Sandusky City and Mansfield	53	600,000
Indiana	Madison and Indianapolis	56	212,000
Michigan	Central	110	1,842,308
do.	Southern	68	936,295
do.	Detroit and Pontiac	25	300,000
	Total in the United States	4,731	$127,417,758

COTTON YARN.

In making an estimate of the value to the United States of the consumption of our great staple, there is one portion of the manufacture which claims a greater degree of attention than has been awarded to it; we allude to that immense amount of cotton yarn, which is not woven in power looms, but which goes into the household manufacture of the country, affording employment to hand-loom weavers, and which is already becoming, to some extent, an article of export abroad, and to the different states of the Union where yarn is not manufactured. The principal reason why so little has been written on this topic, is, doubtless, from the great difficulty there is in obtaining correct statistics on the subject.

As every information, however, relating to the great industrial pursuits of the country, must have a beginning, it is the purpose of the writer to make a commencement, and to give the best information within his reach, hoping that others may contribute their knowledge on this matter, until the public are made acquainted with the extent and value, present and prospective, of this important element of national wealth. Coming, as the coarser numbers of cotton yarn do, nearer to the raw material than any other article manufactured from cotton, the proportion of capital and labor continue to increase as the numbers rise, until, in the finer qualities, the staple becomes a comparatively trifling item in their cost.

Before, however, going into the trade in cotton yarn in this country, we propose to show the manner in which the exportation of it has grown up in Great Britain; and how, from small beginnings, it has become one of their principal articles of export.

The following items of export of cotton yarn, showing its value in pounds sterling for the different years specified, are given by McCulloch:

1816	£1,380,486
1817	1,125,257
1818	1,296,766
1819	1,585,763

Porter, in his Progress of the British Nation, thus states the exportation of Cotton Twist and Yarn, exhibiting the increase from 1820 to 1834:

1820	23,032,325	2,826,639
1821	21,526,369	2,305,823
1822	26,595,468	2,697,582
1823	27,378,986	2,625,946
1824	33,605,510	3,135,396
1825	32,641,604	3,206,729
1826	42,189,661	3,491,338
1827	44,878,774	3,545,578
1828	50,505,751	3,595,405
1829	61,441,251	3,976,874
1830	64,645,342	4,133,741
1831	63,821,440	3,975,019
1832	75,667,150	4,722,759
1833	70,626,161	4,704,024
1834	76,478,468	5,211,015

McCulloch gives the following statement of the Cotton Yarn exported in the year 1837:

	lbs.	value.
1837	103,455,138	£6,955,942

By Waterston's Encyclopedia of Commerce, it appears that the exports of Cotton during the following year were as follows:

	lbs.	value.
1838	114,596,602	£7,431,869

From the British Almanac, we learn that in 1844 the following quantities of Cotton Yarn were exported:

	lbs.	value.
1844	140,321,176	£7,193,971

While on this branch of the subject, it will be proper to give the statistics which follow, showing the different countries to which the Cotton Yarn was exported from Great Britain.

The following table is given by McCulloch in 1837:

Cotton Yarn imported in 1837.

	lbs.	Declared value.
To Russia	24,108,593	£1,612,956
Sweden	734,336	56,060
Norway	197,700	10,474
Denmark	57,470	2,870
Prussia	4,924	502
Germany	34,272,607	2,177,823
Holland	15,993,072	1,386,388
Belgium	67,897	8,752
France	97,707	31,364
Portugal, Proper	323,262	23,612
Azores	17,840	786
Madeira	1,358	78
Spain, the Balize Island	687	45
Canaries	1,071	63
Gibraltar	225,929	14,729
Italy and Italian Islands	8,775,028	477,882
Malta	176,260	9,729
Ionian Islands	297,980	14,303
Morea and Greek Islands	1,800	100
Turkey	3,527,538	180,225
Egypt	660,700	41,372
Western Coast of Africa	2,982	395
Cape of Good Hope	9,314	899
Mauritius	10,400	468
East Indies and Ceylon	8,478,021	602,293
Sumatra, Java, &c.	127,620	7,858
China	1,873,965	103,908
New South Wales, &c.	13,625	781
British North American Colonies	260,732	14,307
British West Indies	55,549	4,487
United States	219,712	13,359
Mexico	2,654,867	144,489
Columbia	188,283	12,488
Brazil	560	48
Rio de la Plata	5,734	364
Isles of Jersey, &c.	7,255	376
	lbs. 103,455,138	£6,955,942

Our readers will be struck with the immense increase in the quantity of cotton yarn manufactured in Great Britain, for exportation. In the year 1820, it will be seen that the quantity exported was but little more than *twenty three millions of pounds*, while ,in 1844, the amount had reached the enormous quantity of over *one hundred and forty millions of pounds*, being an increase during that period of over *six hundred per cent.*

Indeed, the article of cotton yarn stands in the foremost rank of articles of export from Great Britain, and the establishments for its manufacture are among the largest and most expensive of any of those gigantic manufactories, whose perfection of system and detail, and the enormous capitals of the proprietors, have challenged the admiration of the world. From the facts above stated, it will be perceived that the article of cotton yarn is one of the most important elements in the commercial and manufacturing supremacy of Great Britain. Indeed, from estimates given by Mr. Ure, of the machinery employed in Great Britain in 1835, in the manufacture of cotton, it appears that there are 6,500,000 spindles employed in spinning cotton yarn for hand-loom weavers, frame-work knitters, bobbinet-lace manufacturers, and for exportation. The power required to drive the above named 6,500,000 spindles, is estimated by the same writer at 16,892 horses. Of the quantity made during that year, 82,457,885 lbs. were exported from Great Britain.

At that period, there were in operation in Great Britain 11,152,000 spindles employed in cotton spinning ; thus *more than one half*, according to Mr. Ure, were engaged in spinning yarn not woven in power looms.

As the whole product of cotton yarn in that year, (1835,) was 281,435,222 lbs., it follows that at least 150,000,000 lbs. were disposed of without being woven into cloth. From the data thus afforded, we may safely estimate the whole quantity of cotton yarn spun in Great Britain, in 1844, and sold as yarn, at more than 200,000,000 lbs., and the value, judging from the price of that which was exported at that period, must have exceeded the enormous sum of over *ten millions of pounds sterling*, or nearly *fifty millions of dollars.*

It is interesting to trace the different prices at which cotton yarn has ranged since the first announcement of its being manufactured in Great Britain, and we give in this connection the copy of an original invoice in the year 1784, and published by permission, to show the price of yarn at that period.

Manchester, (England,) January 22, 1784.

MR. PETER HEATHY,

Bought of RICHARD ARKWRIGHT,

40 lbs. of twist, No. 30, at 6*s.* 5*d*, ($1,57)	$62,80
20 lbs. of twist, No. 31, at 6*s.* 8*d*, ($1,60)	32,00
	$94,80

From that period until 1802, we have not been enabled to find any authentic record of the prices which cotton yarn is held at in Great Britain ; but we here insert the following very interesting table given by Dr. Ure, of the prices of cotton and cotton yarn, designating the numbers of the yarn, and the difference between the price of the raw staple and the article manufactured, commencing at the year 1802, and continuing until the year 1832 :

Average price of Cotton compared with TWIST *sold.*

	Cotton. per lb. Ave.	Twist sold. per lb. Ave.	Average number.	Difference. Ave.
From December 1802 to December 1805....	19.6	39.8	25.9	20.2
Do 1805 to do 1806....	19.08	36.18	25.	17.1
Do 1806 to do 1807....	21.54	36.70	25.78	15.16
Do 1807 to do 1808....	24.83	38.	24.61	13.17
Do 1808 to do 1809....	26.83	41,91	24.37	15.08
July 1809 to do 1809....	20-73	37.01	24.69	16.28
December 1809 to July 1810....	20.93	40.79	22 97	19.86
July 1810 to December 1810....	19.75	38.51	22.96	18.76
December 1810 to July 1811....	17.96	34.40	23.09	16.44
July 1811 to December 1811....	17.43	28.71	23.59	11.28
December 1811 to July 1812....	17.81	29.72	23.15	11.91
July 1812 to December 1812....	18.24	29.09	24.45	10,85
December 1812 to July 1813....	24.75	35.46	25.22	10.71
July 1813 to December 1813....	25.12	35.08	25.52	9.96
December 1813 to July 1814....	33.52	46,92	25.06	13.40
July 1814 to December 1814....	31.67	45.40	26.	13.73
December 1814 to July 1815....	25.72	37.48	23.65	11.76
July 1815 to December 1815....	26.53	38.44	25.	11.91
December 1815 to July 1816....	20.47	37.74	25.4	17.27
July 1816 to December 1816....	20.73	33.8	25.3	13.07
December 1816 to July 1817....	22.3	34.65	25.7	12.35
July 1817 to December 1817....	20.44	33.6	25.46	13.16
December 1817 to July 1818....	20.46	34.55	25.6	14.09
July 1818 to December 1818....	21.13	32.95	23.4	11.82
December 1818 to July 1819....	14.49	30.85	24.58	16.36
July 1819 to December 1819....	13.65	27.53	24.95	13.88
December 1819 to July 1820....	14-44	26.03	25.70	11.59
July 1820 to December 1820....	11.62	21.40	25.18	9.78
December 1820 to July 1821....	9.82	20.11	25.73	10.29
July 1821 to December 1821....	9.91	19.45	25 53	9,54
December 1821 to July 1822....	9.23	19.27	25.54	10,04
July 1822 to December 1822....	8.34	19.14	25.6	10.8
December 1822 to July 1823....	7.8	19.23	25.6	11.43
July 1823 to December 1823....	8.24	19.63	25.34	11.39
December 1823 to July 1824....	8.81	19.41	25.9	10-6
July 1824 to December 1824....	8.78	19.09	26.1	10.31
December 1824 to July 1825....	14.	22.34	26 2	8.26
July 1825 to December 1825....	13.06	19.11	29.1	6.05
December 1825 to July 1826....	7.6	16.5	27.73	8.9
July 1826 to December 1826....	6.82	15.17	30.	8.35
December 1826 to July 1827....	6.95	14.97	30.95	8.02
July 1827 to December 1827....	7.34	14.77	30.	7.43
December 1827 to July 1828....	6.26	13.	27.41	6.74
July 1828 to December 1828....	6.64	13.3	28.33	6.66
December 1828 to July 1829....	6.23	12.96	28.23	6.73
July 1829 to December 1829....	6.34	13.43	29.69	7.09
December 1829 to July 1830....	7.01	13.28	27.65	6.27
July 1830 to December 1830....	6.82	12.72	26.77	5.90
December 1830 to July 1831....	6.65	12.82	28.58	6.17
July 1831 to December 1831....	6.82	12.37	27.40	5.55
December 1831 to July 1832....	6.97	12.76	29.43	5.79
July 1832 to December 1832....	7.24	12.61	29.52	5.37

Thus the article of cotton yarn, which sold in Great Britain, in 1784, at $1,65 per lb., was reduced in 1832, to about 24 cents per lb., being only one *sixth* of the price it ranged at in 1784. This reduction in price was partly consequent on the decrease in the price of the staple, but more especially to the great improvements made in cotton machinery, and the increased capital invested in the manufacture of cotton yarn, as will be seen by reference to the preceding table, which exhibits the remarkable fact, that the compensation to the spinner, from 1802, to 1805, was $20\frac{20}{100}$*d.* sterling per lb., while in 1832, he only received $5\frac{37}{100}$*d.* for spinning an article of finer quality.

The progress of the manufacturing interests in Great Britain, is most clearly developed by the successful assaults which have been made by it from time to time, on the monopoly of the landed aristocracy, until the union of the commercial and manufacturing classes are about achieving a signal triumph in the contemplated repeal of the corn laws.

The sagacity of Sir Robert Peel has enabled him to perceive the rapid strides making by this country in manufactures, and the impetus the export trade will give to our extended and extending commerce, and while he ranges by the side of those who are breaking down the monopoly of the *landed* aristocracy, he studiously encircles the shipping interests with a girdle of protective measures, and only invites competition in manufacturing pursuits, when the overshadowing capital and cheap labor of the country, and its extended colonial possessions, afford a certain victory over the other nations who are likely to become its rivals.

It is at this juncture that the great value of the cotton yarn manufacture in Great Britain should be properly estimated in this country, for in no one article are we likely to so soon become the successful competitors of the English manufacturers, as in this article of cotton yarn. Our increasing trade with China, and other portions of India, will give us facilities to export large quantities of cotton yarn, when the stimulant of home competition shall have further reduced the price here; and at no distant day, we may successfully compete with the British manufactures in other quarters of the globe.

But in estimating the importance of the manufacture of cotton yarn to the producing classes of the community, it must be borne in mind that there are great and diversified interests connected with it, which are independent of the labor and skill required in its immediate manufacture. A large body of hand-loom weavers find constant and profitable employment in transferring it into fabrics of utility as well as of beauty and ornament; and the southern planter is often a purchaser of the article which he has woven with coarse woollen yarn, to furnish winter clothing for his slaves.

It has also quite recently been introduced, to a considerable extent, into the manufacture of hosiery and under clothing, and those branches of home industry are greatly on the increase.

The export trade has already commenced in larger quantities than usual, and we are informed that one enterprising commercial house in this city, has recently exported about one thousand bales of cotton yarn in one shipment, the value of which, is between *thirty and forty thousand dollars.*

From the rather scanty materials which we have been enabled to gather in relation to the extent of the manufacture of cotton yarn in this country, we shall be enabled to furnish an estimate which will approach correctness, of the quantity manufactured in the Union.

If the information we give is erroneous in any particular, we shall be most happy to make the correction, and will hereafter attempt to remodel our statements, so as to present a more faithful index of the rise and progress, and extent of the manufacture of cotton yarn in the United States.

The manufacture of yarn not woven into cloth before being sold in this state, is not so extensive as in many of the smaller states.

Most of the spinning establishments are situated in the vicinity of the Hudson River, between this city and Poughkeepsie, although there are some small factories which make satinet warps and coarse yarn in the interior of the state.

From the best data we can gather, we find the quantity made in the State of New-York will not exceed 100 bales per week, or 5,200 bales per annum, weighing 200 lbs. per bale, making 1,040,000 lbs. as the yearly product.

In the State of New-Jersey we have consulted the largest manufacturers of the article, and give in the table which follows the result of our information.

In the town of Paterson, there are several large manufactories for spinning yarn for sale, and many in the interior of the state. The best estimates we can procure, show a result of 400 bales per week, or 4,160,000 lbs. per annum.

In the State of Pennsylvania, we have consulted one of the largest and most experienced manufacturers by hand-loom weaving in the city of Philadelphia, and here insert his reply to our communication.

By it our readers will perceive that he estimates the quantity of yarn worked up in hand-looms in that city alone, at 200,000 lbs. per month, or 2,400,000 lbs. per annum. Although a portion of this yarn is made in New-Jersey, it may safely be estimated, that the quantity made in the state will reach that amount.

Philadelphia, May 1, 1846.

Dear Sir,—Your favor of the 24th ult. has been received, and I should be very happy to be able to give you the information you wish, but I find it would require some time to ascertain the amount of cotton yarn made in this state, as most of the large spinning establishments weave up their own yarn by power. However, I send you an estimate of the number of hand-loom weavers of the city and county of Philadelphia, and other hands connected with them.

Dye house men	150
Weavers	2,500
Spoolers	1,250
Warpers	62
Ware room men	62
Bobbin winders,	1,000
Persons employed	5,024,

who consume 200,000 lbs. cotton yarn per month.

Since the receipt of the above communication, we have received reliable information, which induces us to increase the estimate of cotton yarn manufactured in Pennsylvania, to 3,000,000 lbs. per annum.

In North Carolina, the manufacture of cotton yarn is justly considered an important branch of their home industry.

From a gentleman well acquainted with that state, and its internal affairs, we learn that there are twenty six establishments within its limits, for spinning cotton yarn, some of which work up a portion of the yarn into cloth by power looms.

Of these, six are situated at or near Fayetteville, and the remainder in different parts of the state. In 1838, the cotton factories employed in spinning cotton yarn in North Carolina, in addition to those at Fayetteville, were one at Falls of Tar River, Edgcomb County, established in 1818, one near Lincolnton, established in 1822, one at Mocksville, one at Greensborough, one at Lexington, one at Salem, one at Milton, one in the County of Orange, one in the County of Randolph. The quantities of yarn made for sale, is estimated at 300 bales per week, or 3,120,000 lbs. per annum.

In Georgia, there are from eight to ten manufactories for spinning yarn, who produce at least 100 bales per week, or 1,040,000 lbs. per annum.

In Ohio, there are spinning establishments at Cincinnati, Steubenville, Dayton, and other towns, and from the information we can obtain, we should estimate the quantity made, as equal to that in the state of Georgia, viz : 100 bales per week, or 1,040,000 lbs. per annum.

There are spinning factories in Virginia, but we are not informed with any great approach to accuracy of the quantity made in that state, although it can safely be estimated at 50 bales per week, or 520,000 lbs. per annum.

In Kentucky, the quantity made is quite large, but we are unable to procure proper statistics to form a correct estimate of the quantity made in the state. From a very intelligent gentleman of Kentucky, engaged in spinning cotton yarn, and who is at the head of one of the best managed financial institutions in the state, we gather the information that there is sold annually, in the cities of St. Louis in Missouri, and Louisville in Kentucky, cotton yarn, the value of which is at least *one million of dollars*. As the most of this article is manufactured in the south western states, it follows that the states of Kentucky, Ohio, and Missouri, unitedly manufacture the larger portion of the yarn sold at Louisville and St. Louis, which must reach the large quantity of 5,000,000 of pounds.

In Indiana there are 13 cotton manufactories, some of which are exclusively spinning establishments, while others work up more or less of their yarn in power looms. Without certain information as to the quantity manufactured and sold as yarn, we should estimate the amount at 100 bales per week, or 1,040,000 lbs. per annum.

In Tennessee there are five or six spinning establishments which make cotton yarn exclusively. There are also a few factories at which coarse cotton cloths are woven. 50 bales per week, or 520,000 lbs. per annum, would be a moderate estimate of the amount spun in the state, and sold as yarn.

In Alabama, there are three cotton factories, producing, probably, some 30 bales of yarn per week, or 312,000 lbs.

In South Carolina there are several small cotton factories for spinning yarn and making negro cloths. Quantity of yarn estimated at 520,000 lbs. per annum.

In Georgia, the capital employed in cotton manufactures, is estimated at $1,000,000; and a large quantity of yarn is sold in the state, and exported to the north. 1,040,000 lbs. per annum is believed a safe estimate for the state.

In Maryland and Delaware there are spinning establishments for the manufacture of cotton yarn; and we have placed in the table which follows, the result of our inquiries into the quantity of yarn made for sale in these states.

In Massachusetts, by far the greater quantity of yarn manufactured is woven into cloth; but we learn from Palfrey's Statistics, that the quantity of cotton yarn made in the state, and not woven into cloth, for the year 1845, amounted to 1,360,000 lbs.—valued at $284,000—being a fraction less than twenty-one cents per lb.

In Rhode-Island there are in Newport County, and other parts of the state, spinning factories, which make coarse yarns for sale. The quantity, however, is not large, when compared with the magnitude of the manufacture of cotton goods in that state. We have placed the product as being fifty bales per week.

We have consulted Tyler's Statistics for the year 1845, in relation to the quantity and value of cotton yarn made and sold in Connecticut.

In Maine there are large establishments for the manufacture of cotton goods; but we cannot learn that any are established there for spinning alone. All, therefore, that can be properly estimated, which has been sold as yarn, is the occasional surplus thrown off by the manufactories of cotton goods.

In New-Hampshire there are many very extensive establishments for the manufacture of cotton goods, yet but little is sold in yarn. The information we have obtained in relation to the sale of cotton yarn in the state, will be seen in the table of statistics which follows.

Many new establishments in the new states are either contemplated or in the course of erection; and some have, undoubtedly, been in operation, of which we have received no information. In estimating the value of the cotton yarn manufactured in the several states enumerated, we have taken into account the quality of the yarn usually made in the places referred to.

Thus, in this state, and in New-Jersey, there are spinning establishments which make yarn from No. 30 to 50; while, in the Southern and Western states, the bulk of the article manufactured is No. 5 to 10, or 6 to 12.

In the Eastern states, we have taken the price, as given by Palfrey in his Statistics of Manufactures, and made it the standard for the whole, as the quality of the yarn made in the other states will be nearly the same.

Statistics of Cotton Yarn manufactured and sold by Spinning Establishments in the United States—as yarn estimated for the year 1845.

	No. of yarns.	Quantity of pounds.	Value.
New-Hampshire	22	520,000	$109,200
Maine	22	104,000	21,840
Massachusetts	22	1,360,000	284,061
Rhode-Island	22	520.000	109,200
Connecticut	20	1,872,883	367,993
New-York	24	1,040,000	239,200
New-Jersey	24	4,160,000	956,800
Pennsylvania	20	3,000,000	600,000
Delaware	5 and 10	312,000	46,800
Maryland	5 and 10	520.000	78,000
Virginia	6 and 12	520,000	78,000
North Carolina	6 and 12	1,040,000	156,000
South Carolina	6 and 12	520,000	78,000
Alabama	6 and 12	312,000	46,800
Georgia	6 and 12	1,040,000	156,000
Ohio	5 and 10	1,040,000	156,000
Kentucky and Missouri	6 and 12	4,160,000	624,000
Tennessee	6 and 12	520,000	78,000
Indiana	5 and 10	1,040,000	156,000
In other states of the Union	5 and 10	1,000,000	150,000
		23,040.000	$4,481,894

We have taken some pains to ascertain the number of spindles employed in the manufacture of cotton yarn in the United States, and have obtained information from practical spinners in relation to the quantity produced in their several establishments. An intelligent manufacturer in New-Jersey has furnished us with some facts which will enable us to give, with sufficent accuracy, the number of spindles employed in producing the quantity of yarn manufactured in the United States. He remarks, " at my establishment I have about 2,400 spindles in operation. We are now producing twist No. 22's, and cops No. 26's, and turn off about 2,300 lbs. of yarn per week.

A friend who is spinning No. 30's, turns off about 1,500lbs. per week, with 2,000 spindles; and another establishment spins about 3,000 lbs. per week, of No. 5 to 10's, with 1,900 spindles."

From the data thus obtained, we can readily estimate the number of spindles engaged in the manufacture of the 23,040,000 lbs. spun in the United States. The average number of the yarn stated in our table is not far from No. 15, and the quantity spun will not vary much from one pound per week for each spindle employed in its manufacture.

The weekly product of yarn made in the United States, will be 443,077 lbs.; and it follows that there are that number of spindles engaged in its manufacture. But allowing for the stoppages which will occur from lack of water in dry periods, and other unavoidable difficulties, we can safely estimate the number of spindles employed in the manufacture of yarn at 500,000. This number of spindles would employ a power equal to that of 1,200 horses. The number of spindles employed in the manufacture of yarn will necessarily increase hereafter, in greater proportion than the quantity of yarn spun, as the finer numbers will be manufactured to a much greater extent, with the enhanced perfection of the machinery, the capital invested rapidly increase, and the skill of the operative be proportionably heightened.

Indeed, the finer qualities of cotton goods are already manufactured in great perfection in this country; and the finer numbers of yarn will be called for to supply the wants of those who manufacture cloths, but who do not spin their yarn.

Jaconet muslin, and mouselin de laines are now being manufactured in establishments in the Eastern states; and we have seen those goods of American manufacture, which would compare favorably with the most beautiful articles of the kind imported from France and Great Britain.

A friend has shown us some cotton yarn made to order for a manufacturer of mouselin de laines, and its beauty and uniformity, and the fineness of the thread, rendered it an object of interest to those who viewed it, and who, like us, feel a deep interest in the growth and prosperity of home manufactures.

In Florida we learn that a new cotton factory has been quite recently established near Pensacola, which is now in full operation, and many are in the course of erection in others of the new states and territories.

In estimating the quantity of cotton yarn made in the United States, we have not taken into the account the warps, twine, candlewick, and other coarse varieties, made by spinners, in the smaller establishments, where the machinery is generally inferior.

It is quite probable that the quantity of those articles spun in the United States would exceed two millions of pounds per annum.

Cotton yarn is also double and twisted, and a large quantity manufactured into coach lace, fringes, tassels, and other articles of ornament.

The cotton yarn trade gives employment to many thousand of our mechanics, among whom the hand-loom weavers are the most numerous. These industrious and hardy sons of toil are among our most patriotic citizens; and no portion of our population is more thoroughly attached to the republican institutions of the country. Many thousands of males and females are also employed in the manufacture of carpets, hosiery, laces, fringes, tassels, &c., and in the different employments connected with the sizing, dying, reeling and winding of the yarn, previous to its being woven or otherwise manufactured.

Heretofore, the exports of cotton yarn have been, as before remarked, but comparatively small; but the markets of India will soon be supplied with the article from this country to a far greater extent than before, until the British manufacturers will be compelled to divide with ours in most of the great markets of the world.

It is well-known that our heavy domestic goods, by their superiority over those of British manufacture, have continued to maintain a precedence in the China and other India markets.

This, we do not hesitate to believe, will also be the case with our cotton yarn; for the practice in Manchester of mixing the inferior cotton of India with our staple, has been mainly the cause of the inferiority of their common qualities of domestic goods; and the same cause must operate in the case of yarn; and we shall be enabled in this way to rapidly to extend the trade in these markets.

By reference to the annexed list of prices of cotton yarn in this city for the years specified, it will be perceived that the same reduction has been realized which has been so conspicuous in Great Britain. Capital, skill and experience have performed their legitimate functions in this respect, and we may justly anticipate the period, as not being far distant, when the price of cotton yarn in the finer qualities, will, as it does at present in the coarser, range as low, if not lower, than in Great Britain.

The quantity of cotton yarn sold in the United States previous to the year 1823 was quite small; and there was some difficulty in procuring the current rates which it maintained from the year 1815 to 1822, inclusive. In two or three of the years embraced within that period, we have estimated the value by the price of shirtings, and in the remaining years we have received reliable information, which established the price as stated in our table.

In calculating the profits of the manufacturer, it must be borne in mind that there is a considerable loss sustained in the *waste* which is thrown off as the cotton passes through the machinery in the process of spinning.

The loss thus made is estimated at twelve and one half per cent., or one-eighth of the cotton manufactured, and in some of the lower qualities it is much greater. This, of course, must be added to the cost of spinning, when we estimate the nett profits of the manufacturer.

Prices of Cotton and Cotton Yarn, with the numbers of the yarn, and the difference between the prices of Cotton and Yarn, for the years named.

Years.	Price of Cotton.	No. of Yarn.	Price of cotton Yarn.	Difference.
1815	20	18	92	72
1816	28	18	78	50
1817	28½	18	78	49½
1818	32	18	78	46
1819	26	18	70	44
1820	16	18	44	28
1821	13½	18	44	30½
1822	15½	18	46	30½
1823	10½	18	40	30½
1824	14	18	36	29½
1825	22	20	40	18
1826	14½	18	34	19½
1827	23	20	40	17
1828	11	20	30	19
1829	9½	18	26	16½
1830	10½	20	25	14½
1831	9½	20	30	20½
1832	10	22	28	18
1833	11½	22	28	16½
1834	11	20	26	15
1835	17	20	31	14
1836	15	20	32	17
1837	9½	20	30	20½
1838	10	18	29	19
1839	14½	20	29	14½
1840	8	20	21	13
1841	10	18	20	10
1842	8	18	17	9
1843	7	18	19	12
1844	7	18	19	12
1845	7½	18	19	11½

When we look at the great results which have followed the introduction of the manufacture of cotton yarn into Great Britain, we cannot but believe that it will, within a short period, become one of the principal articles in the export trade of this country. Our trade with India will, at no distant day, receive a new impulse by the occupancy of some of the commodious harbors on the shores of the Pacific; and when the mighty current of emigration, now setting towards Oregon and California, shall have poured its millions into those lands of promise, the necessities of rapid intercourse between the shores of the Atlantic and Pacific will result in interlacing the distance with a net-work of rail-roads.

When that period shall have arrived, we may anticipate a vast trade by means of rail-roads, via the Pacific, with India, in which the products of that distant clime, destined for European markets, will swell the increased volume of our own imports, and when our manufactures will be transported in the same expeditious manner, to minister to the wants of the nabobs and their vassals.

To this great market may be added a part of those in Europe, who now purchase so largely of the article of cotton yarn from Great Britain.

Without entertaining an envious feeling, akin to hostility, while contemplating the energy and enterprise displayed by Great Britain, in pushing the advantages she possesses in her superior capital, the cheapness of her labor, and her immense colonial territories, we are still called upon by every sentiment of policy and patriotism, to emulate her zeal in extending her export trade, through the protection she affords to her shipping interests, and to every other national element of wealth, which is not hedged in by the superior advantages she possesses over all rivals.

Thus, the concession to the so-called Free Trade party in Great Britain is but a concession to that great manufacturing interest, which has grown up under the shadow of the protective policy, until the wealth accumulated from the coffers of the nations of the entire globe, renders such protection a dead letter on her statute books.

The landed interest, which was, comparatively, but yesterday the first estate in the realm, has been compelled to succumb to the united power of the commercial and manufacturing classes, and become a secondary element to its successful competitors.

The expositions of Sir Robert Peel sufficiently prove the design and scope of his measures; while the effort to lure the government of the United States into the adoption of a similar policy, would, if successful, arrest our onward progress in manufacturing, agricultural and commercial prosperity. .

Let the protective policy be continued for a few years, and we shall be enabled, like Sir Robert Peel, to boast of our magnanimity in abandoning duties which are inoperative, and to strike off, what our free traders are pleased to denominate shackles, but which are in reality bands of prosperity, and which will have become useless by the combined operation of capital, skill and enterprise.

The wise statesman surveys the whole ground before deploying with his forces, and does not weaken that part of his defences before which the enemy has concentrated his most formidable preparations.

IRON TRADE IN FRANCE.

Our Gallic contemporary, the *Moniteur Industriel*, with its usual virulence against the progress making in the iron trade of this country, and the great demand for British iron in France for railways and shipbuilding, has made a severe attack against the *economistes* of the Chamber of Deputies—the merchants and railway directors—at the idea of wishing the Government to reduce the duty on foreign iron, as it would be the ruination of the forgemasters. He argues, and that very justly, that the French Government ought to give every encouragement it can to the making of iron in the furnaces of that country, so as to compete with this and other states; but it cannot do more than it is doing, as France has not the materials, or means, to produce a sufficient quantity to meet the demand that is making for iron, rails, &c. According to his calculation, the price of rails in England at present is £12 per ton; Belgium, £13; Germany, £17 10s.; and in France, £16 10s.—so that, if she is to have her iron either from England or Belgium, it will be just as dear, especially should many of her high furnaces be extinguished. Next year, he states, the production of their iron and cast metal will amount to, at least, £8,000,000 sterling. "Is France deficient in iron ore, wood, coal, and all the primitive materials necessary for the making of iron? Certainly not—it is superior in quality, and may, perhaps, exceed in abundance, the iron ores of England and Belgium; and notwithstanding the bad legislation of our forrestrial laws and administration, we have more wood fuel than England and Belgium,—and not only is coal cheaper at the pit's mouth in France than in England and Belgium, but her rich coal mines are more considerable, and far surpass those of either country," We should like to ask our contemporary, how it is that, if France is so rich in coal mines, and in iron ore—as he, no doubt, has suddenly discovered—that the Government of France is obliged annually to enter into very extensive contracts, for the supply of Newcastle coal, for the use of her steam navy; that of the country not being fit for the purpose? We might say the same with respect to cast-iron for shipbuilding and other constructions, when they must invariably come to England for their good materiel.—*London Mining Journal.*

SMOKE NUISANCE.

Experiments were made last week on board the *James*, Birkenhead steamer, to ascertain how far it is practicable to remove the nuisance of smoke from the steamers. A very simple apparatus was attached, and the result of the experiment was, that the smoke was wholly removed; and the owners report a saving of nearly 20 per cent. in fuel, and more steam than formerly.—*Liverpool Standard.*

GREAT NATIONAL FAIR.

On no previous occasion, during the thirty years in which the editor of this periodical has been closely connected with the great cause of home industry, has he been more rejoiced, than on the present, in witnessing the magnificent exhibition of its results, at the seat of the general government.

Cold indeed must be that heart that can see such a display, without a glow of the most exalted patriotism, as he walks through the spacious building, and beholds the abundant testimony there exhibited of the inventive genius, the consummate skill, and the never failing industry of the American people.

It is impossible properly to appreciate the inestimable value to the whole Union, of the progress made in the useful arts as it is there shown forth; nor is it less cause of congratulation, that what has required centuries to achieve in other countries, should have been here accomplished in a few years.

Interesting as it would be, on such an occasion, to go at length into a history of how, as if by enchantment, this mighty element of our national strength has sprung up; from what small beginnings it took its rise, and how rapidly it has reached its present unexampled magnitude; to trace its progress and to record its struggles against the overwhelming rivalry with which it has had to contend from foreign competition, as well as against the domestic prejudice it has encountered. Our limited space admonishes us, that it should be rather devoted to describe what is before us, than to inquire into the means by which it has been produced. Nor indeed is this necessary, for the period in which it has been accomplished places that knowledge within the memory of the present generation.

We cannot, however, forbear to take a rapid glance at the past, with a view more fully to enable the reader to form a correct judgment of what we are about to present for his inspection, in the following general account of this first great exhibition of American fabrics, in the City of Washington.

But a few years have passed since the United States was dependent upon the workshops of Europe for most of the comforts of life, derived from mechanical pursuits and the cultivation of the arts.

Within the memory of the writer, millions upon millions of the precious metals were exported to pay for the comparatively worthless fabrics of the spindle, the loom, and the anvil, of foreign countries, at their own prices and upon their own terms.

The last war bore ample testimony of the humiliating truth, that though our political independence had been achieved by the valor of an illustrious ancestry, yet were we far from having secured to these descendants the full fruition of its blessings. We had, it is true, exhibited to mankind a glorious example. We had proclaimed to the world the new and the startling doctrine, that man was capable of self-government, and that the energies of a dauntless people, determined on the establishment of human rights, could place them on a broad and indestructable foundation. But a sad experience had taught us, that valuable as was the victory we had won over the tyrannical bondage to which, as colonies, we were subjected, yet was it in the power of that great nation from whom we had wrested our independence, still to exercise over us an almost unlimited sway, by the state of dependence in which we were kept, from the absence of power to supply our own wants in most of the comforts and convenience of civilized life.

Politically free and independent as was the United States, even under the confederation into which they entered at the close of the revolution, it was discovered that much was wanting to enable us to profit of the advantages we had gained by throwing off the shackles of colonial bondage, and disclaiming forever the absurd doctrine of the divine right of kings.

But that wisdom which is invariably taught by experience, was not long in discovering that the cause of the depression under which the labour of the country still groaned, was the want of the power under the confederation to protect it from the many evils to which labor was subjected in the countries of Europe by the remnants of the feudal system still prevailing there, and which required that due protection should be given to shield American labor from their pernicious influence.

There was no principle which lay deeper in the foundation of American liberty, than that which clearly saw and proclaimed that the great mass of mankind was not properly estimated. Such had been the force by which the people had been kept under, such the enormous pressure upon their labor for the sustainment in luxury of the privileged few, that up to the period of the American revolution, the working man was considered to be amply provided for, if barely sustained in his physical existence upon the coarsest food and the most miserable habiliments. Nor is his condition much better in a large portion of Europe at the present day.

The very genius and spirit of the American revolution was, therefore, a determination to increase the reward of labor—to give to man a higher destiny, and to elevate the mass. But this it was found could not be done under the confederation; and it was not till the adoption of our present constitution, that a commencement was made, which we now see was destined to bring forth this all desirable consummation. For no sooner did the representations of the original thirteen states assemble together under the constitution, than an act was passed with a view to protect the labor and skill of the country, through duties levied upon foreign manufactures, and bounties awarded to our fishermen.

From what we have since witnessed of the energy of the American character, no doubt can possibly exist that this principle, thus solemnly established by the sages of that Augustan age of the republic, would have given vigor and strength to our manufactures, then first struggling into existence; and that their advancement would have been more immediate, had it not been for the breaking out of the French Revolution. That extraordinary event, and the wars to which it gave rise, embodied such immense armies, and took from the peaceable cultivation of the soil, all over Continental Europe, such a vast proportion of those whose labor had been devoted to it, that the staff of life was soon so much diminished, as to require a resort to its importation from abroad. A large portion of Europe could no longer feed its population; hence the cultivation of the fertile fields of the United States, and the transmission of the farinaceous productions to the great theatre of European warfare, became the most profitable employment in which the American people could be engaged. Nor was this the only result that followed the mighty struggle which kept the fair fields of Europe so long deluged in blood.

The great maritime supremacy of England annihilated the mercantile marine of the continental nations, and for a long series of years the whole carrying trade of the world fell into our hands.

This state of the commercial world prevented the people of the United States from turning their attention to the supply of their own wants dependent upon manufactures and the arts. They were content to enrich themselves by agriculture and commerce, and to receive the manufactures of Europe in return for the food with which they supplied the belligerents, and the freights they carried in transmitting it across the Atlantic, as well as those received for delivering in the mother countries the rich treasures of these colonies, in the East and West Indies. But this was an unnatural state of the world, which could not always last, nor while it continued, could it fail to awaken the jealousy of the belligerents. Accordingly, as is well known, it eventually embroiled us in a war with England.

A mighty and sudden change was now to take place in the objects to which American effort was to be devoted; and that inevitable consequence of the great law of necessity, soon produced the most miraculous results. Deprived of the accustomed supplies of all articles for clothing and domestic use—shut out from a large portion of our own proper commerce, the attention of our people was soon turned to the spindle and the loom. Our mines became opened and explored, the hum of the home industry, which for years had not been heard, now imparted its cheerful stimulus in every direction; and great were the advances made in all the useful arts. For, although the war lasted but three short years, such were the enormous prices to which all manufactured goods soon rose, such the cheering voice that resounded through the land, invoking the patriotism of the capitalist and the mechanic, that manufactures started up everywhere, as if by enchantment; and we were not long in creating a very large supply of the more immediate necessaries, of which war had cut off our supplies from abroad.

Those who can remember what was at first the distressed state of the country on the breaking out of the war, will bear us witness that the utter dependence in which we were then placed, was painful and humiliating in the extreme. Our armies were, for a time, almost as badly off as in the war of the revolution; then was realized, to its fullest and most mortifying extent, what had before been but partially foreseen; then did we indeed and in truth, discover that the independence of a country is but a name, so long as it neglects to foster and protect the useful arts. Well, indeed, would it have been for us, had we profited by this sad experience, and that, having once laid the foundation of our manufactures, we should have guarded them with a just and proper care for their permanent preservation. But alas! man is a reasoning rather than a reasonable animal; for when peace came, our sufferings were forgotten; and in 1815, but two short years after the close of the war, the old system of resorting to European workshops revived, and soon gained the ascendency; the lessons of our sad experience were disregarded; a flood of foreign fabrics were introduced, and those who had embarked in manufactures were nearly all ruined. In this and the following year the foundation was laid, by a glut of foreign importations, for that scene of general distress, which in 1819 broke down and produced almost a general bankruptcy. In the year 1816, some disposition was manifested to stand by the country, and the first law was enacted, which created what are called minimum duties.

As the present time, in our opinion, bears somewhat of an analogy, so far as legislation by Congress is concerned, with that period, we propose to state what we consider parallel in the cases, and then to appeal to the record to show some opinions then expressed, and some facts which are abundantly vouched for by an authority which will not be doubted.

At the period under notice, viz. at the session of Congress in April, 1816, the question was debated, which is now soon to be again mooted, namely, whether or no the manufactures of the country ought to receive legislative protection. And on one occasion, upon a motion of Mr. Randolph, of Virginia, to strike out the minimum provision of a bill then before the House of Representatives, a speech was made by the Hon. John C. Calhoun, then a member of that body, which states some very important facts, and contains such a lucidness of argument upon the whole subject of protection, that we shall end this short history of the introduction of protection to manufactures after the war, by a few quotations from that able speech; and only call the particular attention of our readers to one very important fact stated by Mr. Calhoun, and one incontrovertible and decisive answer to the question, why our manufactures need protection?

The fact to which we allude is, that Mr. Calhoun declares, that up to the time of his speaking, the debate had been "on the degree of protection which ought to be afforded to our cotton and woollen manufactures;" all professing to be friendly to those infant establishments, and to be willing to extend to them adequate encouragement. We call the attention of Mr. Robert J. Walker to this testimony, which he cannot dispute; and we would ask him how it happens that at that period a member of Congress should in his place declare, that all were, with himself, willing to give manufactures adequate encouragement; and that he who so declared himself, was the Hon. John C. Calhoun.

We consider that the fact established by such testimony settles the question of the constitutionality of a protective tariff, proving, as it does, that up to that time it had not been doubted.

The answer given by Mr. Calhoun to the question, why our manufactures require protection? is also, we think, of the first importance, because it applies now with the same force it did at that period.

"No doubt," (said Mr. Calhoun,) "it will be said, if they are so far established, and if the situation of the country is so favorable to their growth, where is the necessity of affording them protection. It is (Mr. C. said,) to put them beyond the reach of contingency."

But it is time we should proceed with such an account of this magnificent exhibition, as circumstances will permit.

Anxious that the National Magazine for June should contain a full and official account of the fair, the Editor lost no time in repairing to Washington, and was on the spot two days before it opened. Immediately on his arrival, he reported himself to the managers, and stated the object of his visit; but such has been the pressure upon these gentlemen—so great has been the amount of every description of goods that have poured in, and are still arriving, (May 26th,) that it has been utterly out of the power of the managers to give, as for the editor, in any manner to obtain, for the June number, such an official account as this register ought to contain. We are, therefore, obliged to content ourselves for the present, with giving such a general "coup d'eil" as we have been enabled to take in our several visits to this all-absorbing scene, which has never had anything like its equal in the United States, and which we are confident, for the display of the useful arts, cannot be excelled in any part of the world.

The immense pavilion prepared by the committee, who have the fair in charge, stands on one of the most beautiful eminences in the city, adjoining the City Hall, in what is called "Judiciary Square." It is in the form of the letter T—the main part being 20 feet high, 260 feet long, by 60 feet wide, and the cross of the T. of the same height, 240 by 60 feet.

Nothing can exceed the appearance of the whole scene on first entering this magnificent building, from the tasteful manner in which it is decorated. It is lined all through with bleached calico, as white as the driven snow, which is relieved by a drapery of red and blue, disposed in a manner to produce the most happy effect. The drapery and lining are composed of 24,000 yards of material, and certainly the same amount was never before spread out to produce such a display. The roof is covered with about 6,000 yards of canvass, which is painted to render it impervious to the rain.

It would be worse than useless to attempt a description in detail of the great variety in the species of articles for necessity, comfort, and luxury, which every where attract the eye of the beholder. Nothing but a reference to the catalogue could do them anything like justice. This, from the circumstances stated, it has been impossible to procure, and we can only attempt to give such a list of them as could be obtained by the personal examination we have been enabled to bestow.

At the immediate entrance on the right and left, are placed every species of the most splendid furniture. A magnificent rose-wood bedstead, with a bureau, toilet glass, and piano to match—and on the left, centre tables and other articles made from various indigenous woods, prepared in a style of elegance, and with the brightest polish, showing that there is no necessity to go abroad for a foreign material, for articles in this department of the ornamental cabinet work.

Along the main or centre aisle, which is about fifteen feet wide, tables are placed, with passages between them to side aisles on either side of the main one. These tables contain samples of every description of cotton goods, shirtings, sheetings, printing cloths, drillings, sail duck, bagging, ticking, gingham, checks, cotton flannel, &c.

In the centres of several of these tables, stand in the form of cones, various pieces of the most beautiful prints flowing in graceful drapery, and exhibiting all the colours of the rainbow, disposed in patterns to gratify every taste. On the right side aisle are displayed large numbers of rolls of the richest carpeting, and also hearth-rugs, exhibiting a degree of perfection in the grouping of colours, and of fancy in the patterns, which do great credit to the manufacturers of this article so necessary to domestic comfort in winter. Fringes and tassels of silk and worsted in the same aisles add much to the beauty of the exhibition, by their brilliant colors and perfect make. Gold and silver embroidery shine out in this vicinity, and dazzles the eye with their brilliant splendor. Silk bonnets, and some from fibrous glass, next attract the attention, and are well worthy of special notice. Superb specimens of book-binding, fine stationery, paper-hanging, dressing-gowns, ready made clothing, combs of horn and tortoise shell, and some small articles for the toilet, complete this aisle. Proceeding down the left aisle, the attention is closely rivetted to some specimens of a new worsted article called "alapaca," of an exquisite fabric, and in its neighborhood are cones of the greatest variety of patterns of the finest mouseline de laine. Against the wall in this vicinity are exhibited some patterns of finely wrought worsted work.

At the bottom of the middle aisle are beautiful specimens of table cutlery, silver ware of the richest and most exquisite finish, lamps and girandoles, every species of military furniture, swords, daggers, &c., and a small brass cannon well polished and highly finished. There are also in this vicinity gilt buttons of every size and pattern, as well finished as any foreign button we have ever seen. Near them are all kinds of military caparisons for cavalry and infantry, with an American Major-general's saddle cloth, gorgeously embroidered. Dispersed throughout the main building, which we cannot exactly locate, will be found every variety of woollen flannels, worsted bindings, ladies' cloakings, printed and embroidered shawls, hosiery, suspenders and india rubber goods, domestic silks, table covers, Marseilles bed quilts, blankets, umbrellas and parasols, palm leaf hats, ladies' and gentlemens' hats, boots and shoes, shirts and other wearing apparel, guns and pistols, mantle clocks, and shot of every size. One case in the main aisle deserves particular notice, as containing a set of standard weights, finished with the greatest nicety and accuracy.

On entering the T, turning to the left, on the left hand the whole space is occupied by an exhibition of woollen cloths, cassimeres, and sattinets, which will bear the most thorough examination, and showing a style and finish which afford ample proof of the high state of perfection to which the difficult art of cloth making has now arrived. There are also specimens of felting which are very curiously wrought, of the most substantial fabric. On the right hand of the section of the T, is a pyramid, and adjoining it are several tables containing white and colored, plain and richly cut glass of every description, vieing in lustre and color with the diamond. Interspersed in this part of the T, are some sets of brown and yellow earthenware, far exceeding in shape and finish anything we have seen of this nature, while near at hand are some domestic silks, a large assortment of chemicals, samples of Britannia ware, wire work, locks, articles in ivory turning, and machinists' tools, also refined sugar, candles, varnish, writing ink, blacking, soap, perfumery, and looking-glasses. In the remaining part of the T, on the right, against the wall, are fine specimens of painted oil cloths, morocco and sole leather, chamber lamps, hose, paper hangings, shoe lasts, a highly finished fire engine, a hose and carriage, samples of iron, steel and nails, a large iron cannon, copper and yellow metal, cutlery, leaden pipe, oil, chemicals, chromes, white lead, cordage, hinges, locks, and other hardware, stoves, &c. &c. Ladies' and gentlemens' shoes, trunks, and saddlery, samples of hemp and of Virginia coal, tin ware, mill and cross cut saws, scales of various kinds and patterns, soap-stone, glue, carpenter's tools, refrigerators, &c.

A large portion of this part of the T is devoted to machinery, which is driven by a steam-engine outside of the building, and consists of Chase's card spinner, a carpet-loom, and cotton-drawing frame, a throstle, a cotton power-loom, a machine for tanning leather, and another for slitting leather, a patent bellows for a blast furnace, a machine for spinning hemp into rope-yarns, a hydraulic machine, and a machine for cutting sausage-meat.

There is also here a splendid boat, built entirely of copper, and a great variety of piano-fortes. As decorations over the orchestra, there are several beautiful paintings, and not far from it are some splendid transparencies.

On the right hand side, on entering the main building, is a large covered gallery, devoted to stoves, carriages, ploughs, cultivators, and every variety of agricultural implements, patent cutlery boxes, hollow iron ware, furnaces, cooking-ranges, hoop-iron washing-machines, hominy-mills, corn-shellers and grinders, carriages and carryalls, etc., etc.

The fair opened on the 21st, at noon, the band playing Hail Columbia. The rooms were soon crowded to overflowing; from which time to the present, the 27th, more than thirty thousand persons have visited this unique exhibition. By invitation from the managers the President of the United States and family, with the Secretary at War, and Post-Master-General attended, and apparently took great interest in all that they saw, frequently expressing their surprise and approbation, at the perfection to which the useful arts have arrived in the United States. On the evening of the 25th the pavilion was lighted up, and an immense concourse of citizens thronged the building, so as to fill it up in every part—many having to go away, not being able to obtain an entrance.

We should be much disappointed in laying before our readers this unofficial, and, consequently, imperfect account of a spectacle, which more than any other we have ever witnessed, has shown forth the power of American industry and skill, could the failure to so do, be in the slightest manner attributed to neglect on our part. But it has arisen from a cause over which no one has had any control, and one which is a source of great congratulation. Since it is owing to the immense quantity and variety of the articles exhibited, an official account of which will not be made up in time to insert in this number of our work.

We are promised it for our July number, and then it will be equally our pleasure and our pride to devote our pages to it. We shall then endeavor to give every name connected with this patriotic measure. Meantime we annex a list of the managers, to whom the greatest credit is due for the arrangements made for the occasion; and the manner in which they have devoted so much time to the accomplishment of so desirable an object.

Nor should we close this account without awarding the meed of praise to a benevolent society of ladies of this city, who have attended every day at the fair, with refreshments of lemonade, ice creams, and confectionary, the proceeds from which are to be devoted to benevolent purposes.

MANAGERS.

W. W. Seaton, Esq, the Mayor of the City.	Washington.
J. H. Bradley, Esq.	
W. A. Bradley, Esq.	
J. F. Maury, Esq.	
J. F. Callan, Esq.	
F. P. Jones, Esq.	
D. A. Hall, Esq.	
W. Easby, Esq.	
The Honorable J. P. Kennedy,	Baltimore.
The Honorable J. J. Wetherhed.	
O. C. Tiffany, Esq.	
C. Lyons, Esq., of Richmond, Virginia.	

In conclusion, it is proper to call the attention of our readers to the fact, that this mighty exhibit, to the value in all of more than one million of dollars, consists of articles all made for sale in the regular course of business. Not as far as we know of, containing one single article made for show.

Washington, 27th May, 1846.

GERMAN MANUFACTURES

IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

Being at Washington to witness the Great National Fair, the attention of the editor has been called to the commerce of the United States with the Hanse Towns and with Prussia, through the politeness of J. Dodge, Esq., late agent of the government, sent to Europe on the subject of the tobacco trade.

Mr. Dodge has made many most valuable reports to Congress, from one of which we extract the following very important statistics, showing our trade as above named, and the species of reciprocity we receive from the Hanse Towns as regards our tobacco trade. Having in our last number adverted to the reciprocity *navigation* treaty with the Hanse Towns, and pointed out the injury to our tonnage from that one-sided compact, we ask the attention of our readers, in that connection, to this valuable document of Mr. Dodge.

We may, ere very long, revert to this matter again, as we find in Mr. Dodge's reports much which ought to be recorded; and we think no place more appropriate than the pages of the National Magazine to preserve documents of such deep interest to our industrial pursuits.

Report respecting the demand of the United States of America, for a diminution in the duties on the Leaf-Tobacco of that country, consumed in the Zoll-Verein, addressed to his Excellency Henry Wheaton, Envoy Extraordinary, and Minister Plenipotentiary of those States, by his most obedient servant, Josh. Dodge, Diplomatic Agent, attached to the said legation, at Berlin.

Berlin, August 31, 1839.

Sir—In our memorials, under date of the 4th and 22d of July, 1838, which we had the honor of presenting to Messrs., the Deputies of the *Zoll-Verein*, assembled at that time in Dresden, we asked for a diminution of 2½ thalers per centner in the duties on the leaf-tobacco of the United States, and of 2 thalers per centner on the rice, the produce of our country; and in support of our demand, we brought forward several statistical facts, showing the want of reciprocity on the part of the *Zoll-Verein*, in meeting the highly liberal policy pursued by the American Government toward the produce and manufactures of Germany, and at the same time we pointed out to them the great importance of the markets of the United States of America to the rising industry of this country, which is, in fact, dependent for its prosperity on a continuation of a good understanding with the said States, which take at least one-half of the annual exportations from Germany, of German manufactures.

As we have reason to believe that our demand for a diminution in the duty on our *rice* has, to a certain extent, already been favorably met by the Zoll-Verein, we have now, therefore, only the *tobacco question* to insist on; and believing that the importance of this subject to the rising industry of Germany is not fully understood by the various governments composing the Zoll-Verein, and that, consequently, the justness of our demand for a diminution in the duty on our leaf-tobacco, has not been met and appreciated with that liberal spirit which usually characterizes their dealings with foreign nations, I will endeavor, in this communication, to place the subject in such a point of view as, I think, cannot be misunderstood.

I consequently will endeavor to prove satisfactorily the following points:

1st. The great importance of the markets of the United States of America to German produce and manufactures.

2d. The want of that reciprocity on the part of the *Zoll-Verein* toward the produce of the United States, which is so liberally shown by the American Government to the produce and manufactures of Germany.

3d. That there is a greater amount of articles manufactured in Germany, admitted free of duty into the United States, than of the manufactures of England, in proportion to our commerce with either of those countries.

4th. That the balance of trade is, and has been, against the United States, and in favor of Germany—more so than our trade with France or England, in proportion to the extent of the commerce between the United States and either of those countries.

5th. That when the duty of 5½ thalers per centner was first laid on by Prussia on our leaf-tobacco, in 1818, it only amounted to about 25 per cent. on the first cost of the said article; whereas, in consequence of a great diminution in the first cost of the same, during the ten years, from 1826 to 1835, inclusive, the said duty has averaged 67 per cent.

6th. That a diminution in the duty on the leaf-tobacco of the United States, would not diminish the revenues of the Zoll-Verein; and

7th. The disastrous consequences to the rising industry of Germany, in case the actual high duty on our leaf-tobacco is persisted in by the Zoll-Verein.

The tables per other side will show the great importance of the markets of the United States to Germany.

A general statement of goods, wares, and merchandise, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of Germany, imported into the United States of America from Prussia and the Hanse Towns, and other ports of Germany, from the 1*st day of October*, 1834, *to the* 30*th day of September*, 1836.

	Specification of the merchandise—in English.	Imported into the United States from October 1, 1834, to Sept. 30, 1835.		Imported into the United States from October 1, 1835, to Sept. 30, 1836.	
		From Prussian ports. American currency.	From the Hanse Towns and other ports of Germany. American currency.	From Prussian ports. American currency.	From the Hanse Towns and other ports of Germany. American currency.
1	Spelter or zinc	....	$39,527	$1,360	$77,170
2	Furs undressed	....	30,161	....	28,464
3	Hides and skins undressed	....	36,354	368	62,240
4	Clay unwrought	....	2,232		
5	Rags of any kind of cloth	....	11,373	91	24,989
6	Worsted stuff goods	....	228,875	....	393,604
7	Silk and worsted goods	....	8,434	....	55,066
8	Silk laces, shades, veils, etc	....	10,249	....	3,935
9	Other manufactures of silk	....	185,805	....	405,161
10	Linens, bleached and unbleached	$4,041	402,515	3,123	835,326
11	Ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps	....	5,309	....	17,138
12	Sheeting, called Russia sheeting	....	....	....	1,729
13	Camlets, goat's hair	....	22,966	....	12,418
14	Bolting cloth	....	94	....	287
15	Wool, price not exceeding 8 cents per lb. at the port of exportation	3,385	200,637	....	
16	All other articles free of duty	9,638	1,059,054	16,218	305,989
17	Worsted yarn	....	4,711	....	11,218
18	Thread and cotton lace	....	41,820	....	69,266
19	Sail duck	....	15,471	100	20,210
20	Manufactures of gold and silver, and all other articles composed wholly or chiefly of pearls, precious stones, etc	....	1,061	....	7,830

21	Plain and other glass ware	....	40,463	....	49,196
22	All other articles of glass ware, except those mentioned below, as cut and not specified	....	147,670	....	228,760
23	China ware and porcelain	....	3,210	....	10,445
4	Earthen and stone wares	....	1,025	....	2,325
25	Prepared quills	....	2,319	....	5,925
26	Hair cloth and hair seating	....	2,876	....	9,034
27	Silver or plated wares	....	543	....	1,667
28	Articles not specially enumerated, and subject to an ad valorem duty of 5 to 20 per cent	3,124	77,533	23,751	138,721
29	Wool, the first cost at port of exportation exceeding 8 cts. per. lb.	....	....	53	15,306
30	Cloths and cassimeres of wool	272	10,845	....	83,391
31	Merino shawls of wool	....	....	....	215
32	Blankets of wool	....	179		
33	Woollen hosiery, gloves, mits, and bindings	....	21,234	172	17,591
34	Other manufactures of wool	....	5,952	....	4,851
35	Manufactures of cotton, printed and colored	....	205,446	....	333,462
36	Manufactures of cotton, white	....	27,713	....	34,880
37	Cotton hosiery, gloves, mits, and bindings	....	414,718	....	672,298
38	Cotton twist yarn, and thread	....	11,381	....	12,862
39	Other manufactures of cotton	....	58,331	....	105,800
40	Sewing silk	....	24	....	1,605
41	Checks, stripes, and dyed linens	....	12,720	....	26,162
42	Other manufactures of flax	2,214	46,333	....	36,572
43	Hats and bonnets of fur, wool, leather, etc.	....	1,160	....	648
44	Hats and bonnets of chip or straw	....	4,678	....	3,145
45	Side arms, etc.	....	374	....	5,381
46	Cutting knives, sickles, spades, scythes, etc.	....	3,009	....	6,024
47	Other manufactures of iron and steel	....	51,567	....	126,768
48	Manufactures of brass	....	20,317	....	25,848
49	Manufactures of tin	....	611	....	580
50	Manufactures of wood, including cabinet wares	....	55,782	....	99,084
51	Manufactures of leather	....	3,124	....	10,597
52	Manufactures of copper	....	8,029	....	6,202
53	Manufactures of pewter	....	405	....	175
54	Flannels	....	14,886	....	12,047
55	Glass ware, cut and not specified	....	6,049	....	8,353

A general statement of goods, wares, and merchandise, &c.—Continued.

No.	Specification of the merchandise—in English.	Imported into the United States from October 1, 1834, to Sept. 30, 1835.		Imported into the United States from October 1, 1835, to Sept. 30, 1836.	
		From Prussian ports. American currency.	From the Hanse Towns and other ports of Germany. American currency.	From Prussian ports. American currency.	From the Hanse Towns and other ports of Germany. American currency.
56	Jappanned wares	....	327	....	112
57	Plated wares	....	552	....	656
58	Gilt wares	....	749	....	4,439
59	Slates, of all kinds	....	3,947	....	9,593
60	Black lead pencils	....	3,753	....	4,733
61	Brushes, of all kinds	....	541	....	3,117
62	Articles not specially enumerated	$5,240	42,548	$9,597	66,040
63	Patent painted or stained floor cloths	....	114	31	577
64	All other oil cloths	....	8,578	31	11,008
65	Cotton bagging	....	17,484	610	62,060
66	Wines of Germany in bottles	....	4,069	....	6,662
67	Distilled spirit from grain	....	7,850	86	9,311
68	Distilled spirit from other materials	....	1,516	....	1,966
69	Linseed oil	3,256	594	1,286	4,539
70	Tallow candles	....	585		
71	Bacon	....	4,507	....	15,036
72	Butter	....	59	47	7,565
73	Oil of vitriol	....	154	....	42
74	Paper	2,273	2,275	....	1,944
75	Books	....	7,725	....	18,259
76	Bristles	2,820	7,655	13,894	16,771
77	Twine and pack thread	....	642	....	1,151
78	Muskets	....	10,996	....	11,349
79	Rifles	....	789	....	100

80	Castings of iron	....	1,109	....	2,970
81	Iron not manufactured	....	16,320	....	40,553
82	Apothecaries' vials	....	661	....	251
83	Perfumery and fancy vials	....	604	....	372
84	Bottles	....	12,883	....	19,829
85	Demijohns	....	17,826	....	14,704
86	Window glass	....	17,298	....	29,724
87	Shoes	....	51	....	492
88	Oats	....	....	....	1,971
89	Boots and bootees	....	58	....	284
90	Felts, or hat bodies	....	54	....	185
91	Hemp	1,846	....	10.347	3,052
92	Potatoes	....	782	....	1,710
93	Wheat	....	3	....	84.035
94	Wheat flour	....	....	....	3,914
95	Sugar of lead	....	2,731	....	4,372
96	Steel	....	3,046	....	7,670
97	Ale, beer, and porter in casks	....	90	....	22
98	Beer, ale, and porter, in bottles	....	1,058		
		$38,109	$3,769,758	$81,225	4,901,100
			38,109		81,225
			3,877,867		$4,982,325
					3,807,867
					8,790,192

Making an annual average amount of German produce and manufactures imported into the United States direct from Prussia, and the Hanse Towns, and other ports of Germany,	$4,395,096
To which are to be added, the importations of German produce and manufactures by the way of Holland and France, which, from a strict examination of official documents, and other information derived from correct and well-informed sources, may fairly be estimated at an annual average for those ten years, as follows:	
Through Holland	525,000
Through France	2,500.000
Making an annual average total of importations into the United States of German produce and manufactures, of	7,420,096
Being equal to Prussian thalers	11,130,144

There is no doubt that some of the manufactures of the *Zoll-Verein* are shipped to the United States by the way of Belgium, which, if it could be ascertained, would increase the above amount of importations; but, as I have not been able to obtain such information as I considered could be depended on as correct, I have consequently made no mention of the same.

According to the official statements prepared annually at the treasury department, there were imported direct from Prussia and the Hanse Towns, and other German ports, during the aforementioned two years, a greater amount than is stated in the aforegoing table; the difference arises from there being mentioned in the official statements the total importations, whereas, in the aforegoing table, I have only stated the importations of German produce and manufactures.

The aforegoing table and statement evidently prove the great importance of the markets of the United States to the manufactures of Germany.

The importance of those markets are annually increasing, keeping pace with the unparalleled increase of the population of the United States, as the following statement will show:

During the year commencing the 1st October, 1836, and ending the 30th September, 1837, the importations direct from Prussia and the Hanse Towns, and other ports of Germany, according to an official statement from the treasury department, had increased considerably; say—

From Prussia	$497,829
From the Hanse Towns and other ports of Germany	5,642,221
	6,140,050
Of which amount, the German produce and manufactures alone may be safely calculated at	5,500,000
To which should be added the importations of German manufactures through Holland and France	3,200,000
	8,700,000
Equal to Prussian thalers	13,050,000

I would likewise draw your excellency's attention to the highly important fact, that, from the rapid increase of the population in the United States, arising partly from natural causes, and partly from the great annual emigration from Europe, the agricultural portion of our population are frequently not able to supply the wants of our country in breadstuffs; and that, consequently, great quantities have, within the last few years, been annually imported, principally from Germany. This fact shows the importance of our markets, also, to the agricultural interests of this country. But if our planters cannot find a market for their leaf-tobacco, they will have to cultivate breadstuffs, and thus deprive Germany of the only market which is liberally opened to them for the great product of its soil.

Should any other information be wanted respecting the great importance of the markets of the United States to Germany, I would respectfully suggest to the Zoll-Verein an application to that effect to the different chambers of commerce throughout this country, feeling confident that the unanimous answer will be, that the prosperity of the rising manufactures of Germany depends upon a continuation of the most friendly relations with the United States.

2d. I will now proceed to show the want of that reciprocity on the part of the *Zoll-Verein* toward the produce of the United States which is so liberally shown by the American government to the produce and manufactures of Germany.

By referring to table No. 1, it will be observed that I have numbered each article.

The numbers 1 to 16 inclusive, are admitted free of duty in the United States; the annual average amount, for the two years therein mentioned, is	$2,252,673
Nos. 17 to 28, inclusive, pay an ad-valorem duty of from 5 to 20 per cent.; the annual average amount for those two years is	460,137
Nos. 29 to 62, inclusive, pay an ad-valorem duty of over 20 per cent.; but the excess over 20 per cent. is annually subject to a deduction, and in June, 1842, is to be diminished to 20 per cent.; making an annual average importation into the United States, of	1,396,684½
Nos. 63 to 98, inclusive, pay specific duties, but when they amount to over 20 per cent. ad-valorem, the excess is subject to a deduction, as above mentioned, and in June, 1842, no specific duty is to be charged; but the articles from Nos. 63 to 98, inclusive, are to pay ad-valorem duties, which are not to exceed 20 per cent.; making an annual average importation of	285,601½
	4,395,096

The articles of German manufacture shipped through Holland may be classed, as respects duties, in the same proportions as the above; but there is a much greater proportion, free of duty, of those articles sent through France than those shipped direct from German ports, as the principal amount sent by the way of France are silk goods and silk velvets, which are free of duty.

Let us now examine the duties which are levied by the Zoll-Verein on the produce of the United States.

Our raw cotton, it is true, is admitted free of duty; but the amount of that article imported, directly or indirectly, into the Zoll-Verein, does not bear so great a proportion (in respect to the amount of the other articles of the produce of the United States, which pay a duty in the Zoll-Verein) to the amount of German manufactures admitted free of duty into the United States, taking into comparison the value of the other articles of German manufacture which pay duties in the said states.

But our leaf-tobacco and our rice pay very heavy duties in the *Zoll-Verein.* It is true that we have reason to believe that the duty on rice will be diminished to 2 thalers per centner; but, as the price of this article in the United States may be estimated as averaging, during these last ten years, about 4 thalers per centner, the duty of 2 thalers per centner would still be 50 per cent.

As regards our leaf-tobacco, by referring to page 80, it will be seen that the average price of same in the United States, from 1826 to 1835, inclusive, was 5⅛ dollars per 100 pounds American; which, at the duty of 5½ thalers per centner, would be equal to an ad-valorem duty of 67 per cent.

And in respect to tobacco-stems, the average value of which, in the United States during the last ten years, may be estimated at 3½ Prussian thalers per centner; the duty being 5½ thalers per centner, the same as on leaf-tobacco, it amounts to an ad-valorem duty of 157 per cent. on the first cost.

In comparing these high duties in the *Zoll-Verein*, with the moderate ones levied in the United States on the produce and manufactures of Germany, as shown on page 81, it is easily seen that the duties levied in the *Zoll-Verein*, on the produce of the United States, are much higher than the duties levied in the United States on the produce and manufactures of this country. There is, consequently, no reciprocity in the tariff of the *Zoll-Verein* toward the liberal policy of the United States.

It may be answered, that the tariff of the United States was made for our own convenience, and not to favor foreign nations. Strictly speaking this may be true; but the practical operation of our tariff is such, that German manufactures are greatly favored, which is one great cause of their flourishing condition, and of their being enabled to come in competition with those of England and France, there being a greater proportion of articles manufactured in Germany, admitted free of duty, than of any other country, in proportion to its commerce with the United States; and on those articles on which there is a duty ad-valorem, it being levied on the value of the article, or rather on the first cost; consequently, as many of the German manufactures cost a lower price, (from the cheapness of labor,) than the same article manufactured either in England or France, they, in reality, pay a less duty than those coming from either of those two countries; the German manufacturers can, therefore, frequently undersell the French and English in the markets of the United States.

But the practical operation of the tariff of the *Zoll-Verein* is, on the contrary, against the produce of the United States, particularly as regards the leaf-tobacco of our country, and greatly in favor of the Spanish colonies; for it is well known that the Cuba tobacco is far superior to that of the United States, and costs a much higher price, yet the tariff of the *Zoll-Verein* levies as high a duty on the leaf-tobacco of our country, as it does on that coming from the Spanish colonies. The foregoing are facts which cannot be controverted; and we are, therefore, justified in saying, that the tobacco of the United States is not put on an equal footing with that from Cuba; and, consequently, the tariff of the *Zoll-Verein* does not treat all countries alike—nominally it does so, but practically we are the worst treated.

Let us now compare the liberal rate of duties as collected by the United States, with those levied in England, France, and the Spanish colony of Cuba, on the produce and manufactures of Germany.

ENGLAND.

Silk manufactures, per lb. 11 to 18 shillings.

Silk velvet, £1 2 shillings, to £1 7 shillings.

German sheet glass, per 112 lbs. £10.

Plate glass, superficial measure, per square foot, from 6 to 11 shillings.

The heavy duties exacted in Great Britain on German timber and grain require no enumeration, as they are so well known and felt in this country.

FRANCE.

The manufactures of the *Zoll-Verein*, and of Prussia, particularly, are almost entirely excluded from the markets of France. The following articles are prohibited, namely:

Manufactured leather; leather saddlery; gilt, silvered, or plated buttons; cutlery; glassware; scissors and buckles of steel; scissors, plated, gilt or silvered; cotton cloth; woollen cloths; and cotton stockings.

Silk stuffs (unies) pay a duty of, per 100 kilo	1,760	francs.
Silk stuffs (facon brocheé)	2,090	"
Crape of silk	3,740	"
Gauze, of pure silk	3,410	"

Yet, notwithstanding these excessive high duties and prohibitions, if France should send leaf-tobacco, the produce of its soil, into Germany, it would, according to the actual tariff, be admitted into the *Zoll-Verein* at the same rate of duty as the tobacco of the United States.

The word "prohibition" is not known in the tariff of the United States.

CUBA.

In the Spanish colony of Cuba, the duties levied on German produce and manufactures, vary from 21¼ to 27½ per cent. on a fixed valuation in that colony; and not a single article of the produce or manufactures of Germany is admitted free, or at a lower rate of duty than 21¼ per cent.; yet the tariff of the *Zoll-Verein* levies the same duty on the leaf-tobacco of the United States, where their manufactures are so liberally treated, as they do on the tobacco of Cuba; and even more, for as the quality is better, and the cost of the leaf-tobacco of Cuba greater than that of the United States, the duty being 5½ thalers per centner on both, it naturally follows that the Cuba tobacco is in fact favored by the actual tariff, to the detriment of that of the United States.

RUSSIA.

The disastrous effects to German industry of the illiberal policy shown in the late tariff of that country, are so well known and so severely felt by the manufacturers of Germany, particularly of Silesia, that they require, on my part, neither comment nor enumeration.

3d. The following will show that a greater amount of the produce and manufactures of Germany are admitted free of duty in the United States, than of the produce and manufactures of England, in proportion to the extent of our commerce with either of those countries.

By examining table No. 1, it will be seen that the annual average importations of German produce and manufacture into the United States, for two years, say from 1st October, 1834, to 30th September, 1836, were as follows:

From Prussia	$59,667	of which free of duty		$19,112
From the Hanse Towns, and other ports of Germany	4,335,429	Do.	do.	2,233,561
Through Holland	525,000	Do.	do.	350,000
Through France	2,500,000	Do.	do.	2,200,000
	7,420,096	being principally silks and silk velvets.		4,802,673

Consequently, of $7,420,096, annual average total of direct or indirect importations of German produce and manufacture into the United States, there was an annual average amount of $4,802,673, admitted free of duty, being equal to 65 per cent. of the total amount.

From Great Britain there were imported into the United States, during the same period, from 1st October, 1834, to 30th September, 1836, according to official statements, an annual average amount, as follows:

From England	$67,414,351	of which free of duty		$21,516,048
From Scotland	2,007,773	do.	do.	693,533
From Ireland	525,623	do.	do.	405,559
	69,947,747			22,616,140

Consequently, the amount admitted into the United States from Great Britain, free of duty, was equal to an annual average of about 33 per cent.

4th. I will now proceed to my fourth proposition, viz: that the balance of trade is and has been against the United States and in favor of Germany, more so than with France or England, in proportion to our trade with either of those countries.

I will, however, first state my views respecting the manner that the balance of trade between two countries ought to be examined, as it will be on that basis that my conclusions will be founded.

In arriving at the balance of trade between two countries, the produce and manufacture of one country, and which arrive in the other in the same shape in which they were originally exported, having undergone no change in their nature by their passing through a third country, are the only proper articles to be taken into consideration in arriving at the said balance. Were a different course to be pursued, the ramifications of commerce are so numerous, it would be utterly impossible ever to arrive at a practical knowledge of the balance of trade with any country.

I make this remark, from having frequently heard it argued in Germany, that the cotton-twist from England imported into this country, having probably been spun partly from American cotton, should enter into the calculations of the balance of trade between the United States and Germany. The same reasons which would authorize such an assumption, would also be equally good in favor of bringing into the balance of trade between Germany and the United States, the raw wool which is annually exported from Germany in large quantities to England, and after having been there manufactured either into yarn or cloth, is thence exported in a new shape to the United States; and certainly no writer on commercial statistics would venture his reputation by contending for, and admitting, the correctness of such a course of reasoning.

With this understanding I will proceed to show the state of trade between the two countries.

During the two years from 1st October, 1834, to 30th September, 1836, there was an average annual importation into the United States (as will be observed on page 79,) direct from Germany, or through Holland and France, of German produce or manufacture, amounting to	$7,420,096	
By the official statement from the treasury department, there was exported, during the same period, direct to Prussia and the Hanse Towns, and other ports of Germany, of the domestic produce of the United States, an average total of	3,021,640	
To which are to be added, the raw cotton and leaf-tobacco from England, which may be fairly valued at a first cost of	800,000	
Also, the following articles, through Holland, valued at their first costs:		
Leaf-tobacco	212,880	
Tobacco-stems	21,924	
Raw cotton	340,180	
Rice	29,749	
South sea whale oil	175,147	
And, also, must be added, the leaf-tobacco through Belgium	107,000	
		4,708,520
Making an annual balance of trade against the United States, for an average of two years, of		2,711,576

equal to 4,067,364 Prussian thalers, or 37 per cent. against the United States.

From the 1st October, 1836, to the 30th September, 1837, there were imported into the United States (as mentioned on page 80) of German produce and manufacture $8,700,000

And there were exported direct to Prussia and the Hanse

Towns, and and other ports of Germany, of the domestic produce of the United States	$2,668,915	
To which are to be added, the raw cotton, leaf-tobacco, &c., from England, being the produce of the United States	850,000	
Also the following, through Holland:		
Leaf-tobacco	263,280	
Tobacco-stems	20,232	
Raw cotton	603,520	
Rice	9,693	
South sea whale oil	204,510	
And, also, the leaf-tobacco through Belgium	80,000	
		4,700,150
Making a balance against the United States, of		3.990,850

equal to Prussian thalers, 5,999,775, or 46 per cent.

We thus see that the balance of trade for the average two years, from the 1st October, 1834, to the 30th September, 1836, was 37 per cent. against the United States; and from the 1st October, 1836, to the 30th September, 1837, it had increased, and amounted to 46 per cent. against the United States.

I will now show that the balance of trade between the United States and England, and also France, has not been so much against us as our trade with Germany.

GREAT BRITAIN.

From the 1st October, 1834, to 30th September, 1836, the average annual importations for those two years into the United States, from Great Britain, were as follows:

From England	$67,414,326	
From Scotland	2,007,773	
From Ireland	525,623	
		$69,947,722

The annual average exportations from the United States, of its domestic produce, to England, Scotland, and Ireland, during the same period, amounted to	$53,615,054	
From which is to be deducted the amount of the raw produce of the United States, shipped from England to Germany, and other countries of Europe	2,000,000	
		51,615,054
		18,332,668

Making an annual average balance, of these two years, against the United States, of 26 per cent.

From the 1st October, 1836, to the 30th September, 1837, there was imported into the United States, from England, Scotland, and Ireland, as follows:

From England	$43,566,757	
From Scotland	1,118,410	
From Ireland	131,776	
		$44,816,943

And there were exported from the United States, of its domestic produce to England, Scotland, and Ireland, during the same period,	$49,686,206	
From which is to be deducted the amount of the raw produce of the United States, shipped from England, &c., from the continent	1,800,000	
		$47,886,206
Making a balance of trade in favor of the United States, of		3,069,263

being equal to 6⅛ per cent.

FRANCE.

From the 1st of October, 1834, to the 30th of September, 1836, the average annual importations for those two years, into the United States from France, were as follows:

From French Atlantic ports		$28,047,329
From Mediterranean ports		1,718,067
		29,765,396
From which is to be deducted the amount of German produce and manufacture shipped to the United States through France, as mentioned on page 84	$2,500,000	
And of Swiss and Italian produce	1,000,000	
		$3,500,000
		26,265,396
And there was exported from the United States of its domestic produce to France, an annual average for those two years, of	18,822,724	
Of which there probably went to Switzerland	1,100,000	
		17,722,724
making a balance of trade against the United States of		8,542,672

equal to 33 per cent.

From the 1st of October, 1836, to the 30th September, 1837, there were imported into the United States from France, as follows:

From French Atlantic ports		$20,521,496
From French Mediterranean ports		1,562,118
		$22,083,614
From which is to be deducted the amount of German produce or manufactures shipped to the United States through France	$2,650,000	
And of Swiss and Italian produce, &c.	1,100,000	3,750,000
		18,333,614
And there were exported from the United States of its domestic produce to France during the same period	17,350,914	
Of which, there probably went to Switzerland	1,150,000	16,200,914
making a balance of trade against the United States of		2,132,700

equal to 11½ per cent.

5th. The following will show, that when the duty of 5½ thalers per centner was first laid on by Prussia on our leaf-tobacco in 1818, it only amounted to about 25 per cent. on the first cost of the said article; whereas, in consequence of a great diminution in the price of the same during the ten years, from 1826 to 1835, inclusive, the said duty has averaged 67 per cent. since 1826.

Statement, exhibiting the number of hogsheads of American leaf tobacco exported from the United States, from 1790 *to* 1837, *inclusive, and the average price per pound, and gross value, from* 1802 *to* 1837, *inclusive.*

Years.	No. of hogsheads of leaf tobacco exported.	Average price per pound.	Total value.	Remarks.
		Cents.		
1790	118,460			French revolution.
1791	101.272			
1792	112,428			
1793	59,947			
1794	72,958			
1795	61,050			
1796	69,018			
1797	58,167			
1798	68,567			
1799	96,070			
1800	78.686			
1801	103.758			
1802	77,721	6⅜	$6,220,000	
1803	86,291	6	6,230,000	
1804	83,341	5½	6,000,000	
1805	71,251	7⅜	6,341,000	
1806	83,186	6¼	6,572,000	
1807	62,236	7⅛	5,476,000	Berlin and Milan decrees.
1808	9,576	7½	838,000	Embargo in the United States.
1809	53,921	5⅛	3,774,000	
1810	84,134	5	5,048,000	Rambouillet decree.
1811	35,828	5	2,150,000	
1812	26,094	5	1,514,000	War declared against Great Britain.
1813	5,314	5	319,000	
1814	3,125	6¼	232,000	
1815	85,337	8	8,235,000	Peace with Great Britain.
1816	69,241		12,800,000	
1817	68,365		9,230,000	
1818	84,337		10,241,341	Prussian tariff, 5¼ thalers per centner.
1819	69,427		8,874,167	
1820	83,940	8	8,188,188	
1821	66,858	7¼	5,798.045	
1822	83,169	6⅛	6,380,020	
1823	99.000	5⅝	6,437,627	
1824	77,883	5⅛	5,059,355	
1825	75,984	6⅞	5,287,976	
1826	64.098		5,347,268	
1827	100,000		6,816,146	
1828	96,278		5,480,707	
1829	77,131		5,185,570	
1830	83,810		5,833,112	
1831	86,718		4,892,388	
1832	106,806		5,999,769	
1833	83,153		5,755,968	
1834	87,979		6,595,305	
1835	94,353		8,250,577	
1836	89,000		5,340,000	
1837	100.000		6,000,000	

From 1790 to 1801, the average price per pound has not been ascertained.

The total value of leaf-tobacco, from 1790 to 1801, is not ascertained.

From 1816 to 1819, the average price was 13½ cents per pound.

From 1826 to 1835, inclusive, the average price per pound was 5⅛ cents.

The average price during 1836 and 1837, may be estimated at about 5 cents per pound.

As respects the annual average price in the United States of its leaf-tobacco, as mentioned in the aforegoing table, I will quote an extract from the report of the special committee of Congress, dated 18th February, 1837; the said committee was charged with a special examination regarding our tobacco-trade, and the greatest confidence may be placed on the exactitude of their report, as they spared neither pains nor labor to arrive at the truth.

"There has been a considerable diminution in the prices of our [leaf] tobacco, from the year 1810 to the present time, with the exception of the four years immediately succeeding the late war with Great Britain, during which, it sustained an average of about $13½ per hundred pounds.

"From 1800 to 1809, the average price for these ten years was $6⅜ per 100 pounds; while, for the same number of years, to 1835, inclusive, it has not been quite $5⅛ per 100 pounds, notwithstanding, the quantity exported has not increased."

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

We have our foreign Magazines for the month of May, and proceed to give our usual analysis of the most interesting portions of their contents.

SCIENTIFIC.

We notice in the Edinburgh Philosophical Magazine, a paper on the storm-paths of the Eastern portion of the North American Continent, by Wm. Radcliff Birt. In it he acknowledges the information contributed by Mr. Redfield. After alluding to the theories of Col. Reid, Messrs. Redfield, Loomis, and Espy, and Messrs. Piddington and Thom, in India, the writer contends that the inquiries should now be concentrated in some way, so as to assume a certain character, and meet the ends which a practical utility demands. He considers the origin and final disappearance of these storms, by far the most important objects of pursuit at present. Oceanic barometic pressure is also to be ascertained, in order that its relations to these storms may be estimated; and captains of vessels crossing the ocean are invited to give the altitudes of the barometer, at given hours of the day and night, duly noted on the log-book.

Professor Faraday's experimental researches in Electricity are attracting great attention. The phenomena he has developed and described, prove not only a magnetic condition of the substances referred to, unknown to us before, but also of many others, including a vast number of opaque and metallic bodies, and perhaps all except the magnetic metals and their compounds, and they also through that condition, present the means of undertaking the correlation of magnetic phenomena, and perhaps the construction of a theory of general magnetic action, founded on simple fundamental principles. A large list is given of bodies thus affected, and it is strange enough to find a piece of wood or beef, or apple, obedient to, or repelled by, a magnet. The Professor adds, if a man could be suspended with sufficient delicacy, and placed in the magnetic field, he would point equatorially, for all the substances of which he is formed, including the blood, possess this property. The discoveries affirm the existence of forces in all ordinary bodies, directly the opposite of those existing in magnetic bodies, for whereas, those practically produce attraction, these produce repulsion; those set the body in the axial direction, but these made it take up an equatorial position.

The London Microscopical Society is much engaged in assisting the labors of naturalists. One of the latest uses of the microscope, is to determine the structure of bone. Marked differences are found in that of the four great classes of animals, and the bone of one class may be distinguished from the bone of another.

In the Repertory of Inventions, we find patents have been taken out between March 9 and April 15, for improvements in manufacturing welded tubes; in the manufacture of warp fabrics; casting metals in gas for lighting and heating; making segars; propelling vessels and carriages by atmospheric pressure; in atmospheric railways; combing wool; for marking documents consecutively, and printing dates, words, marks, &c., in an expeditious manner; in the manufacture of bricks; manufacture of thread-weaving looms; preparing extracts from vegetable matters; securing liquids in bottles; in propelling vessels; in electric clocks; purifying vapors from furnaces; for boring in earth or stone; making paper; springs for rail-ways; for raising and floating sunken bodies; distilling from Indian corn, and manufacturing bread; (these two taken out by Mr. H. Meade, of this city) spinning and doubling cotton, wool and other fibrous substances; purifying gas; in printing calico; for plates for the roof of the mouth to attach artificial teeth thereto; in furnaces for heating water; staining of paper; manufacturing sugar; of fuel; for felting; making soda; constructing harness; punching metal plates; making pins; for cutting and slicing vegetable matters; communicating between places separated by water, and improvements in chronometers. We notice that a number of these patents have been granted to foreigners.

Since the revival of the taste for the Mediaeval Ecclesiastical Architecture, stained glass is attracting attention, and the preparation of it becomes a science. In the Revue Scientifique et Industrielle, is a practical essay on the subject, and a translation of it is to be found in the Civil Engineers' Journal for May. Glass for church windows is now manufactured at Hoffmungsthal, in Silesia, by the Tyne Company, in England, and at two places in France.

LITERARY.

An unpublished work by Linnæus, called Nemesis Divina, has been recovered, and will be published. It attempts to show, from his own experience, that the rewards and punishments of Divine Justice are distributed even in this life.

Dr. Cheever's Lectures on the Pilgrim's Progress, and the Life and Times of John Bunyan, are well received abroad.

We notice the recent death of Thomas Tegg, the well-known publisher of Cheapside, who worked his way up, something in the style of Lackington, from humble obscurity to notoriety and wealth.

Wiley & Putnam's Handbook of Young Artists, is favorably received abroad.

The French Archaeological Congress is to meet on the 15th of June, at Mentz.

We have before us a list of 54 questions, which are to be submitted to it for decision. Some of them are curious enough, and indicate an antiquarian spirit truly remarkable.

We will quote a few of these inquiries:'

" What is the exact spot on which Jorin conquered the Germans in Lorraine ?

" To what circumstance can we refer the publication of certain articles of Egyptian type often found in the environs of Treves and Strasburg ? and what date may we assign them ?" There are upwards of 40 questions relating to the architecture of churches and structure of monuments, and five as to changes in castellated buildings and houses in towns and villages. The question is also to be determined, What is now the most expedient form of church building, whether considered artistically, or economically ?

Another is, " In what proportion, and to what kind of edifices should be restricted, the employment of colored glass as a church ornament ?"

A large number of new works is announced by the London booksellers, as nearly ready. We see none requiring particular notice.

Mrs. Kirkland's works are reviewed and praised in Chambers' Edinburgh Journal.

FINE ARTS.

On looking over the various notices of the progress of the Fine Arts abroad during the last month, we find nothing of real interest. Statues and paintings continue to be produced in great numbers, but none make any claim, as yet, to entire success. We read much in relation to opera and the drama, the shining of new theatrical stars, and the departure of the old. But the details would be uninteresting at this time of public anxiety, when all the elements of our national character are called into action by a contest with a foreign enemy, and a struggle with those injudicious persons in our country, who are waging destruction to American industry.

MONTHLY LIST OF PATENTS.

A LIST of Patents issued from the 21st day of April, to the 20th day of May, 1846, inclusive, viz :

To David G. Colburn, of Wilmington, Vermont, for improvement in Pumps. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Joel Hall, 2nd, of Wallingford. Connecticut, for improvement in casting Spoons. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Barnabas Langdon and Amos Salisbury, of Troy, New-York, for improvement in Hemp-dressers. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To William Wheeler, of West Poultney, Vermont, for improvement in Currycombs. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To James Deniston, of Lanier, Ohio, for improvement in Water-wheels. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Henry A. Wells, of New-York City, for improvement in machinery for making Hat bodies. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To William Boughton, of London, England, for improvement in Grinding-mills. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Ralph Summers, of Seneca Falls, New-York, for improvement in Water-wheels. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Henry Johnson, of Washington, D.C., for improvement in Way-mail Bags. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Robert Ferguson, and John Clark, of Glasgow, Scotland, for improvement in printing Calico. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Henry Donges, of Newport, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Tailors' Measures. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Jonathan F. Ostrander, of New-York City, for improvement in Grinding-mills. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Josiah Warren, of New-Harmony, Indiana, for improvement in composition for Stereotype plates. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Joshua Norton, jr., of Boston, Massachusetts, for improvement in the mode of drying sized Paper. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To John Simpson, of Decatur, Georgia, for improvement in machines for making Brick. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Harvey H. May, of Galesburgh, Illinois, for improvement in Ploughs. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Isaac Kellogg, of New-Hartford, Ct., for improvement in making Cores for Castings, (assigned to Henry Kellogg.) Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Daniel R. Allen, of Cumberland, Me., for improvement in Hay-presses. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To William P. Marston, of Danville, Virginia, for improvement in making a machine for rolling Tobacco. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To William Y. Singleton, of Springfield, Illinois, for improvement in Hommony making. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To Michael Collins, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Ventilators for Chimneys. Patented 25th April, 1846.

To John M. May, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, for improvements in Ploughs. Patented 2d May, 1846.

To John Street, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Lamps. Patented 2d May, 1846.

To Elisha S. Snyder, of Charlestown, Virginia, for improvement in bolting Flour. Patented 2d May, 1846.

To Allen Judd, of Cabotsville, Mass., for improvement in Wind-mills. Patented 2d May, 1846.

To Luther Gifford, of Syracuse, New-York, for improvement in weather strips, for doors, &c. Patented 2d May, 1846.

To John M. May, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Ploughs. Patented 2d May, 1846.

To Joel R. Morse, of Lowell, Mass., for improvement in machinery for dressing Tortoise-shell, &c. Patented 2d May, 1846.

To William S. McLean, of Alleghany, Pa., for improvement in Window-sash Fasteners. Patented 2d May, 1846.

To Daniel Asbury, of Colburn's Post-office, North Carolina, for improvement in machinery for washing gold and silver Ores. Patented 2d May, 1846.

To Andrew Vetter, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Over Shoes. Patented 2d May, 1846.

To Joseph Hayward, of Cleveland, Ohio, for improvement in compositions for blacking Leather. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To J. Shaler Ives, of New-York City, for improvement in tuning Metallic Reeds. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To Moses D. Wells, of Morgantown, Va., for improvement in Shovel Ploughs. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To William R. Kelsey, of Big Steam Point, New-York, for improvement in Bee-hives. Patented May 9th, 1846.

To Daniel Arndt, of West Middletown, Pa., for improvement in Bee-hives. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To Joseph. Echols, of Columbus, Geo., for improvement in propelling Vessels. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To Robert Frederick, and Granville A. Trump, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in Refrigerators for Corpses. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To Walter W. Hart, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in the manufacture of spoons. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To Hiram Todd, of Columbus, Ohio, for improvement in Dentists' turnkeys. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To Abishai Clark, of Doe Run Post-office, Pa., for improvements in Meat-cutters. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To John Haslet, and Cornelius Devitt, of Irville, Ohio, for improvement in Bedstead Fastenings. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To Samuel Wilson, of Danville, New-York, for improvement in machines for the manufacture of Harness, Bridles, &c. Patented May 9, 1846.

To John H. Lester, of New-London, Connecticut, for improvement in machinery for dressing Staves. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To Philos B. Tyler, of New-Orleans, La., for improved Safety Switch for Rail-roads. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To J. W. Howlett, and F. M. Walker, of Greensborough, North Carolina, for improvement in Smut Machines. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To J. K. Millard, of Town Hill, Pa., for improvement in regulating and directing upon Water-wheels. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To Benjamin A. Holbrook, of Providence, R. I., for improvement in riveting Weaver's Pickers. Patented 9th May, 1846.

To Andrew Ellicott, and John M. Crone, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in Reverberatory Furnaces. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To H. H. Stimpson, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in backs of Cooking Ranges. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To Christopher Hand, of Port Elizabeth, N. J., for improvement in Water-wheels. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To John L. Sullivan, of New-York City, for improvement in Spinal Supporters. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To Alfred Stillman, of New-York City, for improvement in Sugar Pans. Patented 16th May. 1846.

To John Lee, of Wellsville, Ohio, for improvement in Cooking-stoves. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To Thomas Culbertson, of Cincinnati, Ohio, for improvement in Brick Presses. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To Laban Morse, and Whitman T. Lewis, of Athol, Mass., for improvement in Stoves for burning fine fuel. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To John R. Rennington, of Lowndes Co., Alabama, for improvement in the construction of Andirons. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To Henry Staub, of Martinsburgh, Virginia, for improvement in Smut Machines. Patented May 16, 1846.

To Albert W. Gray, of Middletown, Vt., for improvement in Wrought Nail machinery. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To John F. Winslow, of Troy, New-York, for improvement in the mode of manufacturing malleable iron directly from the Ores. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To Squire M. Fales, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in feeding Furnaces. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To James Wilson, of New-York city, for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To William P. McConnell, of Washington, D. C., for improvement in Propellers in Vessels. Patented 16th May, 1846.

To Matthias W. Baldwin, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Locomotive Carriages. Patented 16th May, 1846.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

In consequence of the editor's absence, our usual notices of New Books received from the publishers must be omitted until our next number, when they shall receive due attention.

Among other new publications we have received, are the following:

The Pictorial History of England, No. 1 and 2—to be completed in 40 numbers.—Harper & Brothers.

Lives of the Kings of England, from the Conquest—(vol. i.) William the Conqueror. By Thomas Roscoe. Lea & Blanchard: Philadelphia.

Life in Prairie Land. By Eliza W. Farnham: Harper & Brothers.

The Oregon Territory, its History and Discovery. By Travers Twiss, F. R. S. D. Appleton & Co.

Harper's Library of Select Novels, viz:—The Bush Ranger of Van Dieman's Land, by C. Rowen, jr. Emilia Wyndham, by the author of "Two Old Men's Tales." The Chronicles of Clovernook, by Douglas Jerrold.

Wood's History of the Administration of John Adams, from 1797 *to* 1801. Walker and Gillis, Philadelphia.

Life in California. By an American. Wiley and Putnam.

Discourses and Essays of the Rev. J. H. Merle D'Aubigne, author of the "History of the Reformation." Harper and Brothers.

Richelieu, a Romance. By James. From Harper's Family Library.

MINING AND OTHER INTELLIGENCE.

From the London Mining Journal of the 2d ultimo, we take the following extracts as interesting to our readers:

IMPORTATION OF BRITISH COAL INTO FRANCE.

From a return, with which we have been favored, it appears that, in 1845, there arrived at Rouen 160,000 tons of British coal, and about the same quantity of wood, for fuel, from the north of Europe—Sweden, Norway, Russia, &c. A considerable quantity of iron, copper, and lead, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, &c., not only from this country, but the north—all of which passed up the river Seine direct, or by way of Havre de Grace. Rouen is one of the most important manufacturing cities in France, and is renowned for the superior quality of its cotton factories, rivalling those of St. Quentin. The number of these establishments, in the town and vicinity, amounts to upwards of 500; and it is justly looked upon as the Manchester depot of the country. The larger portion of these factories are worked by steam-engines and hydraulic power, or water mills, constructed by English engineers; and the foremen, as well as the leading workmen and mechanics, to the number of nearly 800, have been decoyed from the best cotton factories in the United Kingdom, at good wages, to superintend and instruct the native population in the process adopted in this country. Rouen has many advantages over other cities, as it is situated on the right side of the Seine, the tide flowing up sufficiently to allow vessels of 200 to 300 tons to land and take in their cargoes, and a constant communication exists with Havre by steam-boats, which affords great facilities to commerce. The annual consumption of English coal in the factories, gas establishments, and forges in the vicinity, is rapidly on the increase; and when the railway from Paris to Rouen, Havre and Dieppe, is finished, it will be greater.

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METALS.

London, May 1, 1845.

	£	s.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	£	s.	d.
Iron—Bar *a*. Wales..ton	8	0—	8	5	0	*Copper*—Ordin. sheets..lb	0	0—	0	0	10½
" London....	9	0—	9	5	0	" bottoms.	0	0—	0	0	11½
Nail rods "	0	0—	10	0	0	*Tin*—Com. blocks *g*. cwt	4	10—	4	11	0
Hoop (Staf.) Ld..	11	0—	11	5	0	" bars.......	4	11—	4	12	0
Sheet " " ..	0	0—	12	5	0	Refined.........	4	13—	4	14	0
Bars " " ..	10	10—	11	0	0	Straits *h*..........	3	18—	3	19	0
Welsh cold blast foundry pig	4	5—	5	0	0	Banca...........	0	0—	4	0	0
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde	3	5—	3	6	0	*Tin Plates*—Ch. 1C*i*, box	1	10—	1	12	0
Rails............	10	0—	10	5	0	" IX. ...	1	16—	1	18	0
Russian CCND *c*..	0	0—	0	0	0	Coke, IC........	0	0—	1	5	0
" PSI.....	0	0—	0	0	0	" IX....	0	1—	0	11	0
" Gourieff..	14	5—	14	10	0	*Lead*—Sheet *k*.......ton	0	0—	20	0	0
" Archangel	0	0—	13	12	6	Pig, refined......	0	0—	21	0	0
Swedish *d*, on the spot.	0	0—	11	10	0	" common....	0	0—	19	0	0
" Steel, fagt. .	0	0—	15	5	0	" Spanish, in bd	0	0—	0	0	0
" " kegs *e*	0	0—	14	10	0	" American....	0	0—	0	0	0
Copper—Tile *f*.........	0	0—	92	0	0	*Spelter*—(Cake) *l*	0	0—	18	10	0
Tough cake......	0	0—	93	0	0	*Zinc*—(Sheet) *m* export*	0	0—	30	0	0
Best selected.....	0	0—	96	0	0	*Quicksilver*, *n*.........lb	0	0—	0	4	6
						Refined Metal.........ton	0	0—	0	0	0

COPPER ORES

Sampled April 7, *and sold at Swansea, April* 29, 1846.

Mines.	Tons.	Prod.	Stand.	Price.			Mines.	Tons.	Prod.	Stand.	Price.		
Knockmahon	114..	8⅝..	101¼	£6	9	6	Cobre...........	81..	13⅞..	85	£9	10	6
do	110..	7½..	101½..	5	7	0	do	80..	13⅞..	85½..	9	12	6
do	97..	6¼..	105¼..	4	6	6	Berehaven.....	94..	10 ..	95¼..	7	6	0
do	95..	10⅝..	97½..	8	2	0	Llandidno.....	86..	9 ..	99¼..	6	13	6
do	68..	6½..	103½..	4	14	6	Copiapo	84..	25¼..	82¾.	18	13	0
do	63..	6⅝..	103¾..	4	12	6	Holden Slag....	27..	3 .	126 ..	1	10	6
do......	30..	6⅝..	106 ..	4	10	0	do	11..	4⅝.	109 ..	2	10	6
do	16..	10⅝..	94½..	7	18	0	Hafodyllan	21..	5¼.	109½..	8	10	0
Cobre.......	100..	13⅞..	87½..	9	17	6	do	6..	8⅝.	123 ..	1	18	0
do	98..	18⅞..	87½..	9	17	6	do	4..	10⅝..	91¾..	7	12	0
do	96..	13⅞..	85½..	9	12	6	Sicilian.........	7..	15⅞..	86..	11	8	0
do	89..	13⅞..	86 ..	9	13	6	Molland.........	3..	6⅛.	103..	4	1	0

TOTAL PRODUCE.

Knockmahon.......	593	£3389	15	0	Holden's Slag.......	38	£68	19	0
Cobre..............	544	5281	17	0	Hafodyllan..........	31....	115	6	0
Berehaven.........	94	686	4	0	Sicilian..............	7	79	16	0
Llandidno..........	86	574	1	0	Molland.............	3	12	3	0
Copiapo...........	84	1566	12	0					

Total tons, 1480.—Total amount, £11,774 13s. 0d.

COMPANIES BY WHOM THE ORES WERE PURCHASED.

English Copper Company....................	360.......	£3700	4	0
Freeman & Co..............................	51......	208	10	0
P. Grenfell & Sons........................	464......	4511	17	0
Sims, Willyams, Nevill, Druce & Co..........	42......	99	7	0
Williams, Foster & Co......................	563......	3254	15	0
Totals..............................tons	1480	£11,774	13	0

FISHER'S
NATIONAL MAGAZINE
AND
Industrial Record.

Vol. III. NEW-YORK, JULY, 1846. No. 2.

A SKETCH OF THE COMMERCIAL HISTORY OF VENICE.

A judicious friend and subscriber, having suggested to the editor a wish to see a more extended account of the commerce of the Venetians, with a view to show that a well protected industry is absolutely requisite to support a permanent commerce, we yield with pleasure to his request, and now give to our readers an account of the rise, progress, and decline of that once powerful and rich republic, which, with Genoa, Pisa, and the other great commercial cities of former periods, sank into their present insignificance for want of a cultivation of the useful arts, which constitute the only true foundation of national wealth and power.

In or about the year 476 of the Christian era, Attila the Hun, breathing nothing but devastation wherever he went, had made such ravages in Southern Europe, that he obliged the richest inhabitants of Aquilea, Padua, Concordia, and other cities on the continent of Italy, next to the Adriatic sea, to fly with their best effects into the numerous and small sandy isles lying amongst the shallow waters or marshes at the upper end of that sea, near the shores of the continent; on which isles, about seventy-two in number, the fugitives built themselves such habitations as their circumstances would admit; there having been, before that time, only a few fishermen's huts on some of the islands.

By degrees, and by the accession of many more fugitives, this event gave rise to what afterwards constituted the noble city of Venice, so famous for several centuries as the mistress of the Adriatic.

Cardinal Contareno makes their first flight to be as far back as the year Anno Domini 421, though others fix it at a period considerably later. He says, that the first church they erected was dedicated to St. James; and that even in his time, towards the close of the sixteenth century, it was still to be seen in the most famous of those isles, called the

Rialto, which, with the rest of them, had originally belonged to the city of Padua. Petravious, Mezerai, Munster, and others, fix on the year 452 for their first flight from the continent.

From many of these islands the people in aftertimes removed to the principal one, called Rialto, for their greater convenience and security. On this island the most beautiful part of the magnificent city of Venice is still situated. These isles are surrounded with a flat ground, always covered with a shallow sea, having little or no tide, whose waters the modern Italians call "Lagunas" or marshes. Finding from experience that the separate magistracies or constitutions of those small towns or villages were inconvenient, they were at length united under one government, joining all of them together by 430 bridges, and forming in this manner the great city of Venice, which contains near two hundred thousand inhabitants.

From the very first settlement there of the continental fugitives, necessity obliged them to devote themselves to commerce; the first beginning of which was naturally the fisheries. For how could a city, surrounded by the sea, subsist without constant application to maritime commerce, which was to procure them the necessaries of life? Their next commercial object after the fisheries was that of salt, found in certain pits in the isles; and as the inhabitants remained for several centuries without any other ground but the bare sites of their houses, many of which had been gained from the sea, it behooved them at all events to be strong on the water.

Thus, by the industry and application of its inhabitants, added to the security of its situation, Venice became gradually the magazine for the merchants of the neighboring continents, to which the many rivers that fall into the Adriatic greatly contributed; as the Venetians became in time the carriers of this merchandize into distant countries, they were enabled to bring back raw materials for the manufacture of woollen, silk, linen, iron, brass, &c., which greatly enlarged the circle of their commerce.

"The traffic of their ships and galleys," says Machiavel, in his History of Florence, "with sundry sorts of merchandize which other nations needed, occasioned a great resort of shipping from foreign ports to the port of Venice." Acquiring an abundance of wealth, and changing their boarded huts into stately houses, the Venetians afterwards erected magnificent structures both for public and sacred uses. In process of time they extended their territory, and thus gained dominions on the continent, both of Italy and Dalmatia, as also many large and fertile islands in the Levant—many of the latter, however, they have long since lost to the Turks.

Secure as well from the assaults of enemies, as from the ravages of the sea, by a vast semi-circular bank, with convenient openings for the admission of ships, they were enabled to prosecute and extend their commerce, amidst all the wars and devastations on the neighboring continent. It was their grand object to be as much as possible the importers of all foreign merchandize in their own shipping, as well as the exporters of all that they sent into foreign countries. This was one great cause of raising Venice, not only to immense wealth, but to be a great naval power—even long before any of the new kingdoms formed out of the ruins of the Western Roman Empire had acquired any degree of maritime strength. Its situation for the convenience of commerce and for security was equally happy. It had the shores of Greece on one side, and of Italy on the other; behind it, northward, a great and populous continent, and southward, on its front, it was open to the Mediterranean and the Levant, washing the shores of the richest, finest, and then most populous countries of the world. With all these advantages, however, Venice was subject to some inconveniences, more especially respecting the pleasures and amusements of the rich, who could have no rural recreations without going to the continent; and this consideration was probably one great incitement to the obtaining territory on the neighboring continent.

From such beginnings after the fall of the Western Empire, Venice first, and Genoa, Florence, and Pisa afterwards, laid the foundations of the revival of commerce throughout the Mediterranean, which in process of time extended itself to the countries of Europe without the Straits of Gibraltar.

To these free cities of Italy the rest of Europe owed the first models and maxims of commerce, although much afterwards in Western Europe was taken from the German Hanse Towns, in the thirteenth and following centuries; these last having previously profited by its advancement in the cities of Italy, which were for several centuries the only ports of Europe, west of the Eastern or Greek Empire, which had any considerable commerce, or any valuable manufactures for the supply of other nations. For, as there was then very little maritime commerce without the Mediterranean—the shores of the Baltic Sea being then barbarous, and unknown to the rest of Europe—the wool, leather, tin, and lead of Britain, with the grapes and other fruit of France, Spain, and Portugal, lay in those days proportionably neglected, or served chiefly for their home use, until the settlement of new kingdoms, and the increase of population, began to make commerce absolutely necessary.

The Greeks in the army of Alexander the Great are said to have been the first who brought silks from Persia into Greece. Till this period it was manufactured nowhere but at Berytus and Tyre in Phenecia, from whence it was disposed of all over the ancient world. The Venetians, however, soon after this time, (the middle of the sixth century,) entering into commerce with the Greek Empire, supplied all the western parts of Europe with silks for several centuries, as well as with all other eastern merchandize, though many of the modern silks were then unknown. Even damask, invented in Damascus, velvets, satins, &c., may be considered as of a period much later; for Vopiscus, in his Life of Aurelian, writes that gold and silk were in those times exchanged, weight for weight—to which fact, according to Howell, in his History of the World, the Rhodian law bore testimony. The Emperor Aurelian is said to have desired his empress a robe of silk, because of its high price, before the year 275, when Aurelian died.

In the year 703 the Venetians discarded their tribunes, and elected Paoluccio their first Doge, who proved very instrumental in aggrandizing their city, by building castles and forts in their lagunas, and erecting docks for shipping, of which he constantly kept up a stated number for the public service.

About the year 725, Orsus, Doge of Venice, fitted out a considerable fleet, and joining the forces of the Exarch of Ravenna, aided in its restoration to the Eastern Empire.

Very early in the ninth century the Venetians had gained a very beneficial commerce with the ports of the Levant belonging to the Greek empire, from whence they brought the spices, silks, drugs, and fruits of the East, in great abundance; and by means of their numerous shipping, as well as by land carriage, they supplied the rest of Europe with those commodities. This commerce was even then judged to be of so much importance to Venice, that when the new Emperor Charlemagne was about to declare war against the Greek Emperor Nicephorus, the Republic of Venice chose to make a secret alliance with him rather than risk the loss of this commerce, notwithstanding Charlemagne's great power. This afterwards drew upon Venice the wrath of Pepin, son of Charlemagne, who attacked the republic, and almost destroyed it, in 810.

As early as 829 the Venetians laid the foundation of the celebrated church of St. Mark, which contains five hundred pillars of marble; so much had commerce increased their wealth, even at that period.

About the year 887 Venice was threatened by the Narenzians of Dalmatia, on the one side, and by the Saracens on the other; but the most dangerous enemies of all she found in the Huns and Avarians, who had united, and assumed the name of Hungarians, and marching through Switzerland into Lombardy, crowded the lagunas about Venice with their boats, made of wicker and covered with hides, in hopes to possess themselves of the treasures of Venice. They had actually reduced several of the villages on the islands; but the Doge having assembled all his ships, destroyed the main body of the enemy's boats, and forced the rest to flight. After which, Venice obliged the Narenzians, who had for many years disputed the ascendency of the Adriatic, to submit; and thus Venice gradually became the mistress of the Adriatic Sea, which soon enabled her to establish herself on the continent of Italy. The first of her continental possessions was Capo d'Istria, the second Commacheo, and afterwards the entire continental province of Venetia—to which, in process of time, she added a great part of the coasts of Dalmatia, on the east side of the Adriatic, besides numerous isles in both the Ionian and Egean seas, many of which, with the Morea, she afterwards lost to the Turks.

Voltaire, in his general history of Europe, conjectures that it was not till the end of the ninth century, when the Venetians, venturing farther into their lagunas, gave to their assemblage of little isles, which now formed a city, the name of Venice; and that, having by their wealth and arms acquired, first the province of Istria, and afterwards part of Dalmatia, with Spalatio, Ragusa, and Narenza, their Doge, about the year 950, assumed the title of Duke of Dalmatia.

In 977 the cities of Capua and Bari, in the Kingdom of Naples, being besieged by the Saracens, were indebted for their succor to a Venetian fleet, which vanquished that of their enemies, and dispersed them.

In 991, under the prosperous government of their duke, Pietro Urseolo, the republic of Venice, with a powerful fleet, not only enlarged its former conquests in Istria, but extended them in Dalmatia, and destroyed everything with fire and sword in revenge for that people's having, during the course of 170 years, infested the Venetians with their piracies. "Thus (says the Historie de Venise, Paris, 1729) did Venice acquire those cities and towns at this time, on the east coast of the Adriatic Sea, most of which they still retain; such as Trieste, long since, however, subject to the house of Austria, Capo d'Istria, Parenzo, Pola, Zara, Spalateo, Carzolo, Lesina, Ragusa, Narenza, and many other places; and from this time the Duke of Venice assumed the title of Duke of Dalmatia. Besides, although the Saracens in general were enemies to the Christian name, and that those of Sicily and Sardinia, more especially, constantly infested the coasts of Italy, yet the prudent Doge and Republic of Venice found means by their envoys to settle commerce with the Saracens of Syria and Egypt, then under divers Saracen princes: countries ever famous for the production of rice, sugar, dates, senna, cassia, flax, linen, balm, perfumes, galls, wrought silk, soap, &c., besides the rich spices and precious stones of India, brought to those two countries. With all this rich merchandize, the Venetians now traded all over the western parts of Europe, to their immense profit. Venice, also, in the term of this Doge, who reigned from 991 to 1009, obtained of the Greek Emperor Basilius II., and Alexis, a freedom from all customs and taxes in their empire, by which privilege it is no wonder she grew rich, says James Howell, in his Survey of the Seigniory of Venice. The German Emperor, Otho III., likewise granted the Venetians various privileges in the year 996, and a right to set up fairs in several parts of Germany, where they carried on a vast commerce. He likewise remitted forever the cloak of cloth of gold which Venice was bound by solemn agreement to present yearly to the Emperor. In the year 1078, the Venetians gave effectual assistance to the Greek Empire, by vanquishing the fleet of Robert Guiscard, Duke of Apulia, who was besieging Durazzo. That wise republic did not wish such an active people as the Normans to be such near neighbors to them. The Venetians accompanied the first crusade to Syria in 1096, and with two hundred ships, engaged with the Pisan ships at Rhodes, and took eighteen of them; after which they made themselves masters of Ascalon, where, it is said, one hundred thousand Turks were slain by the armies engaged in the holy war. In the year 1100, Venice leagued with Hungary against the Normans of Apulia, and took Brundusium from them.

In the second crusade, the Venetians sent, in 1101, no less than one hundred ships to the coast of Syria. In 1115, two hundred Venetian ships overcame seven hundred of the Saracen ships, which were besieging Joppa, and obliged them to raise the siege. The Venetian fleet then besieged and took Tyre, which the conquerors gave to the patriarch of Jerusalem; and in 1120 the Venetians were so powerful at sea, that their Doge, Domenicus Michael, with a fleet of two hundred sail, obliged the Saracens a second time to raise the siege of Joppa, having entirely destroyed their fleet lying before it.

Roger II., of Sicily, established, it is said, the silk manufacture at Palermo; and the Venetians were so jealous of this, as it so greatly interfered with their importations of silks from Greece, that they joined with the Greek Emperor, Emanuel, against him. It appears that the silk stuffs of Palermo were so far improved as to be finer than those of Greece, so that the Sicilians made up their cargoes, in a great measure, with silks, to the different foreign ports with which they traded.

Mr. "Tallents," in his Chronological Tables, and some other chronologers, fix on the year 1157 for the date of the first establishment of the Bank of Venice. That politic and jealous state has ever been extremely cautious of suffering matters to be made public, which have any near relation either to their policy or commerce. It is, however, agreed by all historians, that Venice was the first state in Christendom that found out the convenience and advantage of a public bank; and other Italian cities, as Genoa, Florence, &c., soon followed her example in this particular. Some authors date this establishment in 1176, and others still later. It is said its original fund was two millions of ducats. In one of the wars with the Turks, the state became security to pay the money therein lodged, which they had been forced to make use of, in that emergency. The agio, or premio of this bank, rose as high as thirty per cent. better than current money, although the state, by several edicts, endeavored to keep it lower. Its capital afterwards was doubled, and the state, in another emergency, also made free with that increased capital. In succeeding times, the state enacted that bank money, or the agio of the bank, should never exceed twenty per cent. advance. In this bank are made all payments of bills of exchange and of contracts between merchants, &c., as in the bank of Amsterdam, which probably borrowed much of its plan from that of Venice, by writing off from one account in bank to another; that is, from the payer's to the receiver's account—most frequently, without gold or silver being paid. This most ancient bank has ever been conducted with the greatest justice and prudence, and has preserved its credit unimpaired, proving of infinite service to the business of the merchants, and often to exigencies of the state.

The year 1173 is said to be the period in which first took its rise, the famous ceremony practiced yearly at Venice, on Ascension Day, of the reigning Doge's wedding the Adriatic with a ring, by throwing it into the sea. The state of Venice having taken part with Pope Alexander III. against the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, who had obliged that Pope to fly to Venice for protection, they made the Emperor's son Otho a prisoner in a sea-fight on the coast of Istria, and took the admiral's galley, with forty-eight other ships; whereupon, that Pope coming to meet the Doge, Sebastian Zani, at Venice, presented him with a gold ring in testimony of his gratitude, saying, "Take this ring, and bend the Adriatic Sea therewith to thee in wedlock; which ceremony you and your successors shall annually perform, that latest posterity may know you have acquired the dominion of this sea, by right of conquest; and that as the wife is subject to the husband, so is this sea to your republic."

Such are the grounds of the mighty pretensions of this republic to the dominion of the Adriatic Sea. Yet so wise a state as Venice for a while improved this seeming feather to their substantial advantage; for they thereupon assumed the title of sovereigns of the Adriatic, and to be its guards from pirates and other invaders; and even prohibited sailing on it to such nations as they disliked, and demanded a tribute of all foreign ships sailing on it. Yet so early as the thirteenth century, Ancona disputed the right of Venice to this exclusive power, now, of course, wholly abandoned.

Another power had grown up "pari passu" with that of Venice, of a no less magnitude; for so powerful was the state of Genoa at this time, that in their treaty with Raymond, Count of Toulouse, Marquis of Provence and Duke of Narbonne, that they obliged that prince, according to "Baptista Burgos," "to prohibit the merchants of all her dominions from going or sending others to sea, on account of trade, without the consent of the consuls and a majority of the councillors of Genoa, under forfeiture to him of all the profits of the voyage, and of one third of the principal or stock sent out; and in case they fall into the hands of the Genoese, they shall forfeit the like to that republic;" and in this treaty Raymond gave up to Genoa the cities of Marseilles and Monæco, and all the ports between the Castle of Turbia and Narbonne.

Thus these two republics of Venice and Genoa, together with that of Pisa, at this time became mistresses of the whole commerce of the Mediterranean, and also of most of that of the ocean, till deprived of much of it by the Hanse Towns in the next and succeeding centuries; while all the great neighboring monarchies looked on, and seemed easy and contented now, and long after, with being supplied by them at their own prices, with whatever they wanted from other ports either for luxury or necessity.

In 1187, while the Genoese and Pisans carried on a cruel war against each other, Venice continued to improve her commerce and enlarge her dominions, more particularly in the Levant; and in 1203, the conquest of Constantinople, and the rest of the Greek Empire, by the Latins, proved a great harvest and increase to the Venetian state. Baldwin, Earl of Flanders, coming to Venice with his retinue in 1202, was there very magnificently received; and that politic republic, well knowing how to make the most out of these expeditions, joined him on this occasion, with three hundred ships and sixty galleys, for the Holy Land, at the same time making him an advance of money. He, in return, employed his army to assist the Venetians in reducing Istria and Zara to their obedience, which had been conquered by the King of Hungary. Baldwin afterwards thought it more easy to overcome a feeble Christian empire than to drive the Saracens from the Holy Land. The combined fleet had wintered in Dalmatia, where they were persuaded by Alexis, the son of Isaac, the dethroned Emperor of Constantinople, to unite their forces for the restoration of his father; which they accordingly performed in 1203, when the vast sums promised to the Crusading princes and states were accordingly paid, great part of which fell to the share of Venice. Among which, Venice had twelve breast-plates and twelve crowns or diadems of gold, adorned with a vast number of precious stones—all which were lodged in the treasury of St. Mark. The year following the Emperor Alexis was murdered, and Earl Baldwin seized that cruel opportunity to procure himself to be crowned Emperor of Constantinople.

The Venetians having been chiefly instrumental in this great revolution, obtained the Isle of Crete or Candia, and also Negropont and many others, in the Ionian and Egean Seas; so that Venice was scarcely able to manage so great an accession of territory; having also in this partition obtained part of the Peloponnesus, since named the Morea, with many cities on the coast of the Hellespont and of Phrygia. It seems that Candia was first allotted to Boniface, Marquis of Montserrat; but the Venetians, knowing its fertility as well as its happy situation for commerce, having the Archipelago on its north side, and Alexandria on the south, from whence they brought the rich merchandize of India, persuaded the new Emperor Baldwin to give Boniface the kingdom of Thessaly in exchange for it—to whom the Venetians gave eighty thousand marks of silver over and above, besides other presents. It is here almost needless to remark, that when the Turks afterwards got footing in Greece, they had but too just a pretence for making war on the Venetians—from whom, says Cardinal Contarini, they took the fair cities of Dyrachiam, now Durazzo, in Albania, and Croy, in Sclavonia; and in every other way bore so hard upon the Venetians, that to obtain peace, they were obliged to give up thirteen cities formerly occupied, from the Greek Empire; but they held the islands considerably longer. This ill-gotten empire remained in the possession of the Latins fifty-seven years, until 1261, when it was again recovered by the Greeks.

In 1206, the naval wars between Venice and Genoa were extremely violent; and in this year the latter conquered the island of Candia from the former, which, however, the Venetians soon recovered. This fierce contention for the commercial supremacy of the Mediterranean, between these two republics, lasted many years, and was frequently renewed. They were both at this time, and long after, very potent at sea; and in the Mediterranean more especially, there were none that could pretend successfully to contend with either of them; for, although Pisa had formerly been the rival of Genoa, and still made a good figure, yet it was by this time considerably declined, and become merely an auxiliary to Venice against Genoa. In the year 1215 the Venetians were greatly incensed against Genoa, for fomenting a rebellion in Candia, as well as for supplanting them in great commercial privileges in Sicily, now given to them by the emperor, for having assisted him in conquering that island from Tancred. On the other hand, Genoa saw her commerce in the Levant declining, by the vast increase of that of Venice; so that this war, which lasted near two hundred years, may be justly termed a commercial war. About this time, whilst engaged in a fierce war with Genoa, Venice found means to entice the silk weavers of Thebes, Corinth, and Athens, to Venice, as they did likewise those of Palermo, in Sicily; by which means a beginning was made to that noble and rich silk manufacture with which Venice, for several centuries, supplied the greatest part of Europe; and this manufacture is still carried on, though to a comparatively small amount.

In the year 1224 Venice acquired as a gift from Gaio, its lord, the sovereignty of the fine island of Cephalonia, in the Ionian Sea, which it long held, though taken in the year 1479 by the Turks, and held twenty years. It abounds with corn, wine, and fine fruits, has many good towns, and some safe ports.

In 1252 Genoa demonstrated the magnitude of her naval force, in a quarrel between her and Venice, concerning the property in a church in the city of Ptolemais, in Syria: the deciding of which dispute occasioned several naval engagements between those two potent states; in one of the last of which, near to the Isle of Corfu, the Venetians lost almost their whole fleet, consisting of upwards of sixty galleys, with five thousand men carried prisoners to Genoa.

In 1257 the Christians, being very strong in Syria, carried on a considerable commerce at Acres, or Ptolemais; and Monsieur Mainburg, in his History of the Crusades, in giving an account of this dispute about the church in that city, observes, "That this quarrel brought on a most cruel war between these two potent states, which continued for a whole age, except a few suspensions from short-lived treaties, to the great prejudice of Christendom, and especially to the affairs of the East, being the principal cause of the loss of the Holy Land," the Christian princes of Syria being drawn in to take sides in the quarrel, by which means the Saracens gained their point—the Orders of Knights Templars and of St. John of Jerusalem, being also at variance. "It is, therefore," remarks the historian, "no wonder that the Crusaders lost ground in Palestine, and were soon after expelled from thence." "To such a degree," (says the author of the Essay de l'Histoire du Commerce de Venise,) "was the hatred between these two republics carried in this war, that neither of them considered anything as a misfortune or disaster, if the other did but share it along with them. According to Voltaire, the Venetians were the only people who possessed the secret of making looking-glasses in the thirteenth century. To their immortal honor, they resisted every attempt to establish the Inquisition, nor would they permit the Pope or the ecclesiastics to interfere in any way with their commercial affairs.

In volume third of the Federa, it is stated that in 1323 Venetian ships resorted to the English seaports, permitted so to do by proclamation of Edward II.; but, strange as it may appear, the historians say England had not as yet any commercial intercourse with any place so remote. And in volume 4th, of the same book, we find that Edward II. "grants his protection and safe conduct to all merchants, mariners, &c., resorting to England for ten years to come, from the city and territory of Venice, with liberty to sell their merchandize in England, and to return home in safety, without having their persons or goods stopped on account of other people's crimes or debts; provided always, that they pay the usual duties and excise, and import nothing but legal merchandize." "This excepting or saving clause," says Anderson, "the second of its kind hitherto to be found in the Federa, it is probable, was the condition on which the state of Venice accepted of the king's liberty of commerce with England; for what powerful state or nation could tamely submit to such abject conditions, as to permit their innocent merchants, as our former practice was, to make them liable for the debts and crimes of others." Still we find no clause in behalf of English merchants trading to Venice —which shows that up to this period, 1325, there was no commerce from England to so great a distance. Nor does there seem to have been any political intercourse between England and Venice till the year 1332, when Edward III., being then at war with France, tried to enlist Venice on his side, by sending ambassadors to that republic, with what success does not appear.

In 1336 the Venetians first sent out a fleet against the Turks, which took possession of Smyrna a second time; they were, however, soon after beaten at sea by the Turks, who were very troublesome in their attacks on lesser Asia, so as to threaten the total ruin of the declining Greek Empire.

About this time great jealousies in commercial matters existed between the rival republics of Genoa and Venice, the former strenuously endeavoring to shut out the latter from the trade of the Black Sea, wherein they had hitherto in some measure been masters, by means of their ports of Caffa in the Crimea. The Turks, however, in a few years closed the Dardanelles to all Christendom. In 1340, it is remarked by Anderson, that the largest ships in the world belonged to Venice and Genoa; and in 1347 King Edward III. granted the Venetians the privilege of trading with England, for one year only.

The Venetians (and other writers) of this period, speak much of the great trade carried on at this time between Egypt and India, for spices and Indian wares of all kinds, from which a great part of the revenue of the Mamaluke Soldans proceeded.

It seems the course of that trade then was to land the Indian wares at Aden, in Arabia, from whence they were carried on camels up to the Red Sea, thence over land to the Nile, down which river they were transported to Cairo and so on to Alexandria, from whence the Venetians transported them to Venice; and lastly in Venetian ships they were dispersed all over Europe.

It will be observed, that about this period England began to assume a considerable degree of maritime power; for strange to say, in the sixth volume of the Federa, King Edward III. is represented as having granted, at the request of John, Doge of Venice, safe-conduct for five Venetian galleys laden with merchandize, bound to Flanders, and in the two following years for six galleys each year. These passes, as they were termed, were necessary on account of the wars in which England was then engaged with France. And in 1369, a war with France existing, King Edward III. allowed the freedom of commerce with England to Venetian ships and mariners, upon condition that they should remain neuter.

In volume 7th of the Federa, the Doge of Venice, in 1375, is said still to have asked a passport for five Venetian galleys coming from Flanders, and that all other Venetian ships should be free from molestation, and freely enter English ports, which proves that the Venetians had at this time a large trade with Flanders, then the greatest manufacturing nation in Europe, particularly of woollen cloths. In the following year, it is also stated that Zeno, governor of the isle of Tenedos, a Venetian possession, first used cannon against the Genoese, who were besieging it; the latter, never having known the use of them, were alarmed, and raised the siege. "These great guns," says Machiavel, in his History of Florence, "were newly invented by the Germans."

In the year 1379 the Genoese having defeated the Venetian fleet, taking fifteen of their galleys, with two thousand five hundred prisoners, imagined from this great advantage, that they might now attack the invincible city of Venice. In this they entirely failed, after much loss on both sides, though Venice was reduced to great straights for money and provisions; a fleet of Venetian ships arriving at a fortunate moment from the Levant, the Genoese were forced to abandon the siege. This fatal miscarriage is said by historians to have established the supremacy of Venice by sea, after Genoa had for the most part held it during three centuries. From this period Genoa is thought to have gradually declined, and Venice to have increased in commerce and naval strength. Venice was thus confirmed in her claim to the title of the Virgin City, never having been taken by an enemy.

The beginning of the fifteenth century saw Venice increasing in riches, commerce and territory. She was possessed of a considerable part of the ancient Greek Empire, on the east side of the Adriatic, of the Morea, and of many Greek islands, so that she excited the jealousy of the rest of Italy. Her large mercantile vessels covered not only the Mediterranean Sea, but traversed the great ocean in search of new sources of commerce, while her rival, Genoa, continued to decline.

Cardinal Contareno, in his History of Venice, says, "In the very beginning of the fifteenth century Venice acquired a great enlargement of her territory, by possessing herself of Vicenza, Fettio, Bassano, Belluno, Verona and Padua, and the Island of Cyprus.

In the 8th volume of the Federa, King Henry VIII., says the record, at the earnest request of Michael Steno, Doge of Venice, grants a license "to all merchants of Venice, with their caracks, galleys, and other vessels laden with merchandize, freely to resort to England and trade there, and from thence to Flanders, and so back to England, where they may lade their vessels with wool, cloth, and other lawful merchandize, paying the usual customs, dues, and so at length to return home." In the sequel of this eighth volume, and in the ninth of the same book, we find the same grant from year to year, and by it we may see the course of trade which Venice had at that time with England and Flanders; and we must still further remark, that in none of these grants is there yet to be found any kind of stipulation for the same freedom for English ships at Venice, which would certainly have been the case had any English ships resorted thither.

"The Venetians and Florentines," (continues the Federa,) "in 1430, in their great galleys, bring all sorts of spices and grocery wares, sweet wines, drugs, sugar, with small wares, and from England they carry home wool, cloth, tin, and our gold coins. This shows the balance of trade was against us in those times with the Italian republics."

In the year 1432, after very long wars, Venice and Genoa became weary of fighting, and made peace; Venice still increasing in power and wealth, until the year 1453, when the Turks having taken Constantinople under Mahomet II., took from Venice also most of the isles in the Levant and Archipelago. The Venetians were also soon after dispossessed of the Morea, and were forced to pay tribute to the Turks for their trade to the Black Sea. In 1687 the Venetians retook the Morea, which was confirmed to them by the peace of Carlowitz, in the year 1699; but the Turks retook it again in one campaign in 1715. To resist the overwhelming power of the Turks, historians of that period say, the Venetians about this time first established a standing army. This seemed, however, to answer but little purpose; for in 1462 the Turks demolished the Venetian wall on the isthmus of Corinth, reaching six miles from sea to sea, and then obtained complete possession of the Morea, having lost the city and whole island of Negropont after a terrible slaughter of the Christians.

By an act of the 7th year of Henry VII., an additional duty of eighteen shillings per butt was laid on Malmsey wine, "which new import," says the statute, "shall continue in force until the Venetians shall abate their imposition of four ducats at Candy."

Thus it is seen that the city of Venice, by means of her commerce to the principal Levantine ports of Aleppo and Alexandria, was for many centuries the principal mart for the spices, precious stones, drugs, and other rich merchandises of Syria, Egypt, Arabia, Persia, and India, and by the Venetians they were dispersed all over Europe, more particularly to Germany, by which Venice became very rich, as well as famous all over Christendom, till the beginning of the sixteenth century, when, by the discovery of the passage to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope by the Portuguese, the trade for Indian merchandize was transferred to Lisbon, where it flourished greatly for a century, until the Hollanders found their way, and superseded Portugal in India.

The 13th volume of the Federa contains a most curious statute passed in 1507 by Henry VIII., in which the king pardons the Venetians for all their illicit trade with England—provided, says the statute, that the said Venetians be not forgiven any debt due to us for which there are written securities. Permission is also given to them, with many other nations, who are included in the act of amnesty, for the space of ten years, to buy and sell at London, and elsewhere in England, Ireland and Calais, woollen cloth, lead, tin, leather, &c.; provided, that under color of this grant the said Venetians do not, within the said term, import into England any goods from the dominions of the Archduke of Austria. This provision was introduced to favor English merchants.

Although the numerous wars of Europe during this century are not properly within our cognizance, such as the contest between France and Spain for the possession of Naples and Sicily; the contests between the Poles, Bohemians, Austrians and Hungarians; nor even the bloody wars between England and France; yet in justice to Venice we must not omit to mention her deliverance from the famous League of Cambray against her, which was a confederacy of the greatest part of Europe, in order to effect her final overthrow, viz. the Emperor Maximilian I., Louis XII. of France, Ferdinand, King of Spain, and Pope Julius II., by whose instigation this league was secretly projected. These powers in conjunction easily stripped the republic of all that she possessed on the continent of Italy; yet with all their power they were not able to conquer the capital city of Venice; and in the end the Pope being brought, or *bought* over, and the rest of the confederacy becoming disjointed, the republic soon recovered much of her territories. To the Pope, however, she was obliged to leave Ravenna, to Spain five towns in Calabria, and to the Emperor, Triesto and Freuli.

In the year 1521, the city of Genoa was stormed and pillaged by the Emperor Charles V.; and the Chevalier de Mally, in his "Historie de Genoe," says that Genoa was at that time the richest city in Europe, next after Venice and Lyons.

In this year Venice made a proposition to Portugal to take off all the spices annually imported by the Portuguese, over and above what Portugal could consume at a certain fixed price; but the proposal was rejected.

John Bodin, of Angers, the famous civilian and historian, makes the number of souls in the city of Venice in the year 1555, to be 180,444.

Guicciardini, in giving an account of the commerce of the city of Antwerp in 1560, says, "to Venice they sent jewels and pearls, their own cloth, and the wool of England, in great quantities; draperies of the Netherlands, tapestry, linen, cochineal, also many kinds of mercery, sometimes also sugar and pepper, and brought back from Venice (before the Portuguese found the way to the Spice Islands) all sorts of Indian spices and drugs; and even so late as the year 1518, there arrived five Venetian galleys laden with spices and drugs for the fair at Antwerp. But they still bring from Venice the finest and richest wrought silks, camblets, grograms, carpets, *cotton*, and a great variety of merceries, also colors both for dyers and painters."

In the year 1570, the Turks took from Venice the far famed Isle of Cyprus, the fleet to defend it being too long delayed. The combined fleet for its defence consisted of 124 Venetian ships, forty-two of Spain, and twelve of the Pope. The Turkish fleet consisted of two hundred sail. This loss of Cyprus was in some degree revenged for in 1571. The combined fleets of Pope Pius V. and state of Venice, commanded in chief by Don John of Austria, in the Gulf of Lepanto, obtained a most signal and complete victory, though a very bloody one, over the whole Turkish fleet. The Christians had 7656 killed, and the Turks about 30,000, besides the loss of much money and other rich booty.

Voltaire says, Venice sent one ship annually to Archangel, commencing with the year 1599.

Mezerai, though a Papish author, writing of the reign of King Henry IV. of France, highly commends the state of Venice for so wisely consulting the true interests of the people; for finding many inconveniences from the indiscreet zeal of persons, especially on their death beds, they did not scruple in 1603, to prohibit—

First.—The building of churches, convents, or hospitals, without the Senate's permission.

Secondly.—That no ecclesiastic be allowed to leave, bequeath, or engage any goods to the church.

Thirdly.—That none shall henceforth give any estate in lands to the clergy, nor to religious orders, without the consent of the Senate. And although the Pope interdicted the republic, and excommunicated the Senate in 1607, yet many of their bishops and clergy continued firm to the Senate, notwithstanding all the thunders of the Vatican.

Thus it will be seen that in the 15th century Venice was in the plenitude of her wealth and power; but from the famous League of

Cambray, to which we have alluded, necessity obliged her to pursue a comparatively cautious and pacific policy.

The war, however, with the Turks in Candia, and the rapid decline of the commerce of Venice, now much broken up from the new channels into which it had been turned—from the rise of the power of Portugal, and the trade of that nation and of Holland to India, by way of the Cape of Good Hope,—gave a death blow to her former supremacy, and by the end of the seventeenth century reduced her to a state of great exhaustion, from which she was destined never to recover. In 1799, the "Maiden City" submitted to the conqueror, and shared the fate she had seen overturn many of the most powerful states, "and," says M'Culloch, "that city—the link that united the ancient to the modern world—stripped of independence, of commerce and of wealth, is now slowly sinking into the waves whence she rose."

We take from Macgregor the following account, as the latest we have, of her now trade, commerce and manufactures.

The statistics of these provinces are not of very recent date. Quadri for 1827, Drs. Schubert and Springer for 1834, with some few papers which we collected at Venice and Vicenza in 1838, are our principal authorities. Dr. Schubert distributes the lands as follows:

	*Austrian yochs.
Arable land	389,060
Vineyards	220,526
Meadows, orchards, and gardens	475,463
Pastures	503,260
Woods	430,606
Total Austrian yochs	3,024,915
About English acres	4,234,880

	†Austrian metzer.
Produce—Wheat	2,452,107
" Maize and Rye	4,319,853
" Rice	162,911
" Barley	45,264
" Oats	251,568
Total metzer granites	7,231,703

Live stock: viz—

Horses, 50,100; mules, 8,537; asses, 20,915; horned cattle, 408,560; sheep, 365,077; goats, 41,009; swine, 152,700. Total for the Venetian provinces, 1,046,898; which, for a population of rather more than 2,000,000, is something over one quadruped for each human being. While the proportion of live stock in Lombardy is only 8 to 25 inhabitants.

The lands are distributed by Quadri, in 1837, as follows:

	Tornature.
Arable ground (arative)	747,260
Rice grounds (risaie)	17,821
Meadows (prati)	136,704
Pastures (pascoli)	52,295
	954,080

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* A yoch is 1 acre, 1 rood, 27¼ perches,

† 1¾ Winchester bushels.

	Tornature }
	954,080
Valleys, cultivated	51,274
Marshes	63,201
Forests	33,570
Total, plains and low-lands	1,102,125
Hilly region	186,831
Mountain region	591,168
Barren and waste lands	486,946
Total area, or, 6,902 Italian square miles	2,367070

" The eight provinces of Padua, Polisine, Vicenza, Verona, Venice, Treviso, Friuli, and Belluno, comprehend 93 districts, subdivided into 814 communes, and 3483 *frazioni*.

" Of the population, 625,440 inhabit towns, and 1,268,997 the country, making a total of 1,894,437: and the whole number of families was 397,098, occupying 362,854 houses. 409,118 males paid the personal tax. The number of scholars in the various establishments of education was 70,149, being to the population as 1 to 27. The clergy consisted of 8,350 secular priests, 171 regulars, and 246 monks and lay brothers; there were 398 advocates, 366 notaries, 721 physicians, 605 surgeons, and 718 apothecaries. There were 371,188 proprietors; 51,651 traders and merchants; 97,991 artists of various sorts; 800,512 agriculturists; 7,840 sailors and boatmen; and 8,448 fishermen. From 1812 to 1823 the population continued nearly stationary.

" Twenty-two royal roads (*strade regie*) comprising a length of 723 Italian miles, are the main communications. These are wholly at the cost of the government. There are 217 communal roads, at the charge of the localities, which are about 2000 miles in length, independently of cross-roads, &c.

" The annual expenditure for keeping the roads and bridges in repair is A.890,000 lire, or about £30,000 sterling. There are 40 navigable rivers, which cost the state annually A.1,233,750 lire, of which the Adige is charged with A.480,460 lire, and the Po, A.203,615 lire. There are above 200 navigable canals, maintained at an expense of about A.62,000 lire."

And the annual produce was estimated at,—

" Silk, 4,854 metrical quintals;[*] wool, 4,491 ditto; butter, 11,804 ditto; cheese, 29,738 ditto; wax, 229 ditto; honey, 963 ditto; meat, 52,200 ditto; hides, 280,070 number."

Of vegetable produce, the estimate is,

Wheat produced	1,660,000		
Rice	185,420		
Maize	3,900,000		
Vegetables	520,000	These rather more.	
Oil, olive	721	met. quint.	These insufficient for the consumption.
— linseed	912	"	
— grapestones	264	"	
— nut	727	"	
Fruits	43,230	"	
Wine	1,459,512	*Some met.*	
Wood	7,330,000	met. quint.	
Flax	7,200	"	
Hemp	39,200	"	
Tobacco	1,773	"	

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[*] About 204¼ lbs. each.

"The articles of which the local supply and demand nearly correspond, are chestnuts, potatoes, ordinary fruit, hay, and straw."

MANUFACTURES.

"There were (in 1827) between 500 and 600 miners in the Venetian provinces occupied in the extraction of copper; about a similar number in the marble quarries; somewhat more than 100 in digging various earths; and about 60 in the mines of calamine. In 365 iron works, 1,180 operatives were engaged; in 21 manufactories of other metals, 229 operatives; and in 680 establishments, with 693 furnaces, for glass, porcelain, earthenware, bricks, tiles, &c., 3,133 workmen.

"The number of printing presses were 245; of stoves for reeling silk, 8,485; of mill-stones, 4,654; looms for woollens, 744; and for silk goods, 1,022: of this last nearly one-half are in Padua, and applied to the weaving of silk ribbon."

The manufactures of the city of Venice are the glass-works, in which are produced, magnificent mirrors, beautiful artificial pearls, gems, and colored beads, &c.; about 4,500 men; the women and children are employed in the various manufactures, beads, jewellery, gold and silver chains, gold and silver stuffs, silks, laces and velvets, soap, earthenware, wax, and spermaceti candles, sugar-refineries, &c. Printing is more extensively carried on in this than in any other city of Italy, and books form a considerable article of export. Ship and boat-building is carried on to a considerable extent at Venice and Chiozza. The inhabitants are not, however, fully employed ashore, and a great number depend on fishing, and on navigating the vessels belonging to the port. The latter, exclusive of fishing-boats, amount to about 30,200 tons of shipping, employed chiefly in the coasting trade.

Verona has about seventy factories for throwing, spinning, and weaving silks; extensive tanneries and leather works, some earthenware and soap manufactories, and several small manufactures of linen and woollen. Except so far as regards silk and leather, the others are only on a moderate scale; and the commerce of the town, and of its two fairs and weekly markets, consists chiefly in its silks and other fabrics, and in agricultural produce, including oil and sumach.

Vicenza has fabrics of silk, wool, linens, felt, leather, earthenware, gold and silver, jewellery, and a tolerably brisk trade in agricultural products.

Venice is a free port, and most articles for the use of the citizens are admitted duty free. There are, however, small duties levied to raise funds to defray the municipal expenses,—goods of various descriptions are imported from Venice, and carried chiefly by contraband, into the Papal States, and into the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. There is also a considerable trade carried on from Venice to Dalmatia, Albania, and parts of Greece. The imperial dock-yard, formerly the famous dock-yard of the republic, is kept in excellent condition, and contains all that is required for the construction of ships of war. Venice has some, but inconsiderable, manufactures of silk, wool, cotton, linen, and glass wares. The banking and discount business of Trieste may also be said to depend chiefly upon the bankers of Venice. Population about 110,000.

Chioggia, or Chiozza, south of Venice, near the mouth of the Brenta, is a small but safe port, where several merchant vessels are constructed, and where there are salt-works.

Trieste.—The Molo of Teresiano, upon the extremity of which there is an excellent light-house, shelters the inner port of Trieste. The quarantine port, or dock, lies to the north. It is walled round—and the warehouses for goods, and dwellings for passengers performing quarantine, are convenient, and remarkably well adapted for those purposes. Ships sailing into or from Trieste are not bound to take pilots. The port of Trieste is too limited in capacity for even its present commerce, and a heavy swell rolls in when the wind blows strongly from the north-west. In the outer port, however, large ships may ride safely in good anchorage, and the inner port is capable of great extension, which will, no doubt, be executed, when the trade and navigation increases.

Lying at the very extremity of the Adriatic, Trieste forms the great *entrepôt* for the imports and exports of the southern provinces of Austria. There is no river flowing into it, and its intercourse with the interior is confined to an excellent road over a ridge of the Alps, which rises immediately over the town. A small territory surrounds the city, and the population of both amount to about 76,000, exclusive of the garrison and seamen. Eighty years ago the population did not exceed 7000 inhabitants.

The *exports* from Trieste are chiefly corn, rice, honey, wax, shumac, tobacco, oak, birch, pine, and ship-building timber.—Hemp, cotton, and sheep's wool,—mirrors—musical, optical, and astronomical instruments,—clocks and watches,—cotton, woollen, linen, velvets, and other silk manufactures. Silk and silk rags, linen rags,—olive and fish oils,—soap, candles, corkwood, quicksilver, lead, copper, iron, steel, alum, vitriol, marble, &c.,—wine, Maraschino, Rosolio, and other liqueurs,—furs and hides, and a great variety of other articles, raw and manufactured.

The *importations* are sugars, cocoa, coffee, various spices, wines, and spirits,—manufactures of cotton and wool,—salt-fish, &c.,—tar, pitch, naval stores, dyewoods and stuffs,—raw materials for manufactures, oils, &c.

An extensive coasting trade is carried on between Trieste and the ports on each side of the Adriatic, and the number of these coasting voyages amount to about 7,500 annually.

The total value of exports are stated at about 4½ millions sterling, and the imports at about one million more than the amount of exports; but in order to lessen the *ad valorem* duties, these estimates are considered below the actual value of imports.

The commerce of Great Britain, including the direct trade, by British ships from Cuba and from South America, to Trieste, and the British trade through the Ionian Islands, greatly exceeds that of any other power. The trade of Trieste now extends to all parts of the Mediterranean and Black Sea,—to the ports of the United Kingdom, the Baltic, Norway, the Hanse Towns, Holland, Belgium, France, Spain, Portugal, Morocco, the United States, Antilles, and Brazil. Colonial productions, and all raw and manufactured articles imported are (with the exception of the consumption of the city, and small territory of Trieste) either passed onward *in transitu* to the interior of the Austrian states, and to Hungary and Servia, or transhipped for Vienna, Dalmatia, Albania, Greece, Turkey, &c.

Among the merchants of Trieste, there are besides Austrian subjects, English, American, Greeks, Armenians, &c. All foreigners are allowed to settle as merchants and to trade in this city. As manufacturers, foreigners are subjected to some restrictions. Trieste is, however, not a place calculated for manufactures, and there are but few of any consequence, with the exception of rope-making and ship-building. Brokers must be licensed before they can act as such, and are divided into three classes, viz: selling and purchasing brokers, bill brokers, and ship and insurance brokers. There are twenty insurance companies, chiefly for marine risks,—there is one for life, and two for fire insurances. In cases of bankruptcy, the laws discharge a creditor on surrendering his property, and making an honest statement of his affairs. There is a branch of the Venice bank at Trieste, for facilitating discounts, &c., and there are also several private bankers. The orna or eimer of Vienna = 12.33 imperial gallons, is used for all liquids, except oil. The oil orna is equal to 14.29 gallons, and is divided into 100 lira, or litres.

The stajo, or grain measure, is equal to 2.34 bushels, or 100 quarters = 342 staja. The other weights and measures are those of Vienna.

Vessels belonging to foreign countries with which Austria has no treaty of reciprocity, are subject to the payment of differential duties. The Americans first obtained an exemption from these duties in 1824; and five years afterwards, in 1829, England obtained the same privilege by Lord Aberdeen's treaty.

The actual port charges for national and favored vessels, are,

Anchorage	per ton, 4 kreutzers.
Lights	¾ kreutzer.
or both nearly	3*d*. per ton.
Cargo duty	3 kreutzers.

These three charges, on a vessel of 300 tons, may amount to about £5 sterling, and upon a non-privileged vessel of the same tonnage, to £12 15*s*.

The quarantine charges are very moderate, being for entry and departure only, upon a ship of 100 tons and upwards (exclusive of 3*s*. per day for wages and food to the gondolier) about 18*s*. Quarantine dues upon goods, 6 kreutzers per 100 florins value, and upon susceptible goods, 4 kreutzers per 1000 lbs. weight.

All articles may be imported into Trieste except those similar to the same used or produced in the imperial monopolies—viz., *gunpowder*, *salt*, *saltpetre*, and *tobacco;* and also, quicksilver, mirrors, unwrought iron, steel and copper, which are admitted only to be warehoused. The facilities of entering goods, or warehousing the same, are very convenient to merchants; and the duties are not required to be paid until entered for consumption, or until they arrive under seal (*plombe*) at their ultimate point of sale: as, for example, when passed by land-carriage to Vienna, Milan, Prague, &c. Smugglers are subject to the penalties of confiscating their goods, to pay a fine of twice the value, and to imprisonment in default of payment.

Of the other sea-ports of Austria, the principal are, viz., *Capo d'Istria*, which has a good roadstead, and a population of 6000 inhabitants, with several tanneries, soap manufactures, and salt works. It exports to Trieste, wine, oil, leather, salt, and has a small country trade. Pirano, an ancient town in Istria, with a small port, a population of 6,300, and an active export trade in wine, oil, and salt. Rovigno, also in Istria, a safe port, with an active sardine and tunny fishery. It has ship-yards and cable-manufactures; 10,500 inhabitants.

Pola, at the extremity of Istria, with a capacious well-sheltered harbor, and an extensive fishery. The coast from Trieste to Pola is well lighted.

Fiume, in Hungary, is intricate to enter, but within, capacious and safe. It has some manufactures of cloth, linen, wax, hats, tobacco, and common earthenware, a sugar refinery, tanneries, and ship-yards. The *exportations* are chiefly tobacco, wine, salt, hemp, linen, fur, ship-building, &c. The *importations* are manufactured goods, colonial produce, &c. It is an entrepôt for sea-salt.

Spalatro has a capacious harbor, with safe anchorage. By its situation in the centre of Dalmatia, and its proximity to Bosnia, with which principality it has easy communication, and by the abundance of wood for ship-building and the fishery, Spalatro is one of the most advantageously situated towns and ports in the Adriatic. It has tanneries, fabrics of coarse woollens and silk, and a fishery. Population 7,500.

Ragusa, once so famous, has now only a population of about 7,000 inhabitants, and its trade is of little importance, except as a place of transit with the interior.

Cattaro is an excellent capacious port, but it is necessary to have a pilot to enter it with safety. It has a considerable transit trade, and its situation is very convenient for shipping, and for an interchange of commodities with Albania and the interior country.

We consider this history of Venice as one replete with instruction, inasmuch as it shows to what an extent peculiar circumstances elevated her in those early days, before the arts of peace had attained the ascendency, which, in modern times, has proved the real source of civilization, wealth and power.

We have taken Venice as the example, but Genoa, Pisa, Florence, and imperial Rome herself, might be added, and would serve as superabundant evidence to illustrate a fact now established by all experience, that if a nation would become really great, it must be by creating wealth at home;—that wealth acquired by a mere carrying trade is as rapidly lost as it is often speedily acquired. Had the money, the labor, and the time spent in the quarrels between the Italian states for commercial supremacy been applied to the peaceful arts, how many human lives would have been spared, how much the comfort of mankind would have been promoted, how would civilization have advanced, and the great moral of the human family been elevated? An inquiry into the advancement of the arts, and their rapid progress in modern times, with the advantages which have resulted to all nations who have properly protected and pursued them, we must leave for another occasion, as this article has already extended itself beyond our usual limits.

MANUFACTURE OF COTTON IN INDIA.

As everything relating to the manufacture of cotton possesses great interest, we have selected the following account of its antiquity in India, from a history of silk, cotton, linen, wool, and other fibrous substances, &c., &c., published by Messrs. Harper & Brothers, in 1845.

This whole book is very interesting ; and we would refer those of our readers who would know more about its copious and well digested accounts of the manufactures of the ancients, to page 754 of our No. for January, 1846, (second volume,) where they will find its contents fully noticed.

We select from its valuable pages the following account of the cotton manufactures of India, to show how the improvements in cotton machinery have entirely superseded the cheap labour of India, to which country we formerly shipped millions of specie for cotton goods of every description, which we now make at home from our cotton—thus consuming the raw material of the Southern states, instead of that of India, and furnishing a home-market for the agricultural productions of the middle states,—stimulating the general industry employed in the cotton manufacture, and now employing more ships in exporting beyond the Cape of Good Hope our own cotton fabrics, than we formerly employed in importing those of India.

The Indians have in all ages maintained an unapproached and almost incredible perfection in their fabrics of cotton. Indeed, some of their muslins might be thought the work of fairies or insects, rather than of men ; but these are produced in small quantities, and have seldom been exported. In the same province from which the ancient Greeks obtained the finest muslins then known, namely, the Province of Bengal, these astonishing fabrics are manufactured to the present day.*

We learn from two Arabian travellers of the ninth century, that "in this country (India) they make garments of such extraordinary perfection, that nowhere else are the like to be seen. These garments are for the most part round, and wove to that degree of fineness that they may be drawn through a ring of moderate size."† Marco Polo, in the thirteenth century, mentions the coast of Coromandel, and especially Masulipatam, as producing "the finest and most beautiful cottons that are to be found in any part of the world ;"‡ and this is still the case as to the flowered and glazed cottons, called chintzes, though the muslins of the Coromandel coast are inferior to those of Bengal.

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* Bains's "History of the Cotton Manufacture," p. 55.

† Anciennes Relations des Indes et de la Chine, de deux Voyageurs Mahometan, qui y allerent dans le neuviéme siecle, p. 21.

‡ Travels of Marco Polo, book iii. c. 21, 28.

Odoardo Barbosa, one of the Portuguese adventurers who visited India immediately after the discovery of the passage by the Cape of Good Hope, celebrates "the great quantities of cotton cloths admirably painted; also some white and some striped, held in the highest estimation," which were made in Bengal.[*] Cæsar Frederick, a Venetian merchant, who travelled in India in 1563, and whose narrative is translated by Hakluyt, describes the extensive traffic carried on between St. Thomé (a port 150 miles from Negapatam) and Pegu, in "*bumbast*" (cotton) cloth of every sort, painted, which is a rare thing, because, this kind of cloths show as if they were gilded with divers colors, and the more they are washed, the livelier the colors will become; and there is made such account of this kind of cloth, that a small bale of it will cost one or two thousand ducats."[†]

Tavernier, who, like Marco Polo, Barbosa, and Frederick, was a merchant as well as a traveller, and therefore accustomed to judge of the qualities of goods, and who travelled in the middle of the seventeenth century, says—"The white calicuts," (calicoes, or rather muslins, so called from the great commercial city of Calicut, whence the Portuguese and Dutch first brought them,) "are woven in several places in Bengal and Mogulistan, and are carried to Raioxsary and Baroche[‡] to be whitened, because of the large meadows and plenty of lemons that grow thereabouts, for they are never so white as they should be till they are dipped in *lemon-water*. Some calicuts are made so fine, *you can hardly feel them in your hand*, and the thread, when spun, is scarce discernible."[§] The same writer says, "There is made at Seconge (in the province of Malwa) a sort of calicut so fine that when a man puts it on, *his skin shall appear as plainly through it, as if he was quite naked;* but the merchants are not permitted to transport it, for the governor is obliged to send it all to the Great Mogul's seraglio, and the principal lords of the court, to make the sultanesses and noblemen's wives shifts and garments for the hot weather; and the king and the lords take great pleasure to behold them in these shifts, and see them dance with nothing else upon them."[‖] Speaking of the turbans of the Mohammedan Indians, Tavernier says, "The rich have them of so fine cloth, that twenty-five or thirty ells of it put into a turban, will not weigh four ounces."[¶]

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[*] Ramusio's "Raccolto delle Navigationi et Viaggi," tom. i. p. 315.

[†] Hakluyt's Voyages, vol. ii. p. 366. Edition of 1809.

[‡] At the town of Baroche, in Guzerat, Forbes describes the manufacture as being now in nearly the same state as when Arrian's Periplus was written (about A. D. 100.) He says—"The cotton trade at Baroche is very considerable, and the manufactures of this valuable plant, from the finest muslin to the coarsest sail-cloth, employ thousands of men, women, and children, in the metropolis and the adjacent villages. The cotton clearers and spinners generally reside in the suburbs, or poorahs, of Baroche, which are very extensive. The weavers' houses are mostly near the shade of tamarind and mango trees, under which, at sun-rise, they fix their looms, and weave a variety of cotton cloth, with very fine baftas and muslins. Surat is more famous for its colored chintzes and piece goods. The Baroche muslins are inferior to those of Bengal and Madras, nor do the painted chintzes of Guzerat equal those of the Coromandel coast."—Forbes's Oriental Memoirs, vol. ii. p. 222.

[§] Tavernier's Travels, contained in Dr. Harris's Collection of Voyages and Travels, vol. i. p. 811.

[‖] Ibid. vol. i. p. 829.

[¶] Tavernier's Travels, Harris's Collection, vol, i. p. 833.

An English writer, at the end of the seventeenth century, in a remonstrance against the admission of India muslins, for which, he says, the high price of thirty shillings a yard was paid, unintentionally compliments the delicacy of the fabric, by stigmatizing it as "only the *shadow* of a commodity."*

The late Rev. William Ward, a missionary at Serampore, informs us, that "at Shantee-pooru and Dhaka, muslins are made which sell at a hundred rupees a piece. The ingenuity of the Hindoos in this branch of manufacture is wonderful. Persons with whom I have conversed on this subject say, that at two places in Bengal, Sonar-ga and Vilkrum-pooru, muslins are made by a few families so exceedingly fine, that four months are required to weave one piece, which sells at five hundred rupees. When this muslin is laid on the grass, and the dew has fallen upon it, *it is no longer discernible.*"†

After such statements as the above, from sober and creditable witnesses, the oriental hyperbole which designates the Dacca muslins as "*webs of woven wind,*" seems only moderately poetical.

Sir Charles Wilkins brought a specimen of Dacca muslin from India in the year 1786, which was presented to him by the principal of the East India Company's factory at Dacca, as the finest then made there. Lake old Indian muslins, it has a yellowish hue, caused by imperfect bleaching. Though the worse for many years' exposure in a glass case, and the handling of visiters, it is of exquisite delicacy, softness, and transparency; yet the yarn of which it is woven, and of which Mr. Wilkins also brought a specimen, is not so fine as some which has been spun by machinery in England. The following minute, made by Sir Joseph Banks on a portion of this yarn, thirty or forty years since, appears in the India House in his own writing, together with a specimen of the muslin:—

"The portion of skein which Mr. Wilkins gave to me weighed $34\frac{3}{10}$ grains: its length was 5 yards 7 inches, and it consisted of 196 threads. Consequently its whole length was 1018 yards and seven inches. This, with a small allowance for fractions, gives 29 yards to a grain, 203,000 to a pound avoirdupoise of 7000 grains; that is, 115 miles, 2 furlongs, and 60 yards."

Cotton yarn has been spun in England, making *three hundred and fifty hanks* to the *lb. weight*, each hank measuring 840 yards, and the whole forming a thread of 167 miles in length.‡ This, however, must be regarded merely as showing how fine the cotton can possibly be spun by machinery, since no such yarn is or could be used in the making of muslins, or for any other purpose. The extreme of fineness to which yarns for muslins are ever spun in Great Britain, is 250 hanks to the pound, which would form a thread measuring 119¼ miles; but it is very rarely indeed, that finer yarn is used than 220 hanks to the pound, which is less fine than the specimen of Dacca muslins above mentioned. The Indian hand-spun yarn is softer than mule-yarn, and the muslins made of the former are much more durable than those made of the latter. In point of appearance, however, the book-muslin of Glasgow is very superior to the Indian muslin, not only because it is better bleached, but because it is more evenly woven, and from yarn of uniform thickness, whereas the threads in the Indian fabric vary considerably.

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* The Naked Truth, in an Essay upon Trade, p. 11.

† View of the History, Literature and Mythology of the Hindoos, by William Ward; vol. iii. p. 127. 3d edition.

‡ Pliny, in speaking of linen yarn, gives us an account (L. xix. cap. 2.) of the cuirass of the Egyptian king Amasis, which is preserved in the temple of Minerva in Rhodes. "Each thread," says he, "is shown to consist of 365 fibres, which fact Mucianus, being a third time Consul, lately asserted at Rome."—Mucianus was Consul the third time, A. D. 75.

It is probable that the specimens brought by Wilkins, though the finest then made at the city of Dacca, is not equal to the most delicate muslins made in that neighborhood in former times, or even in the present. The place called by the Rev. Mr. Ward, Sonar-ga, and by Mr. Walter Hamilton, Soonergong, a decayed city near Dacca, has been said to be unrivalled in its muslins. Mr. Ward's testimony has been quoted above. Mr. Ralph Fitch, an English traveller, in 1583, spoke of the same place when he said—" Sinnergan is a town six leagues from Serrapore, where there is the best and finest cloth made of cotton that is in all India."* Mr. Hamilton says—" Soonergong is now dwindled down to an inconsiderable village. By Abel Fazul, in 1582, it is celebrated for the manufacture of a beautiful cloth, named *cassas* (cossaes,) and the fabrics it still produces justify to the present generation its ancient renown."† But it seems that there has been a great decline in the manufacture of the finest muslins, which is both stated and accounted for by Mr. Hamilton in the following passage on the district of Dacca Jelulpoor:—

" Plain muslins are distinguished by different names, according to the fineness or closeness of the texture, as well as *flowered, striped* or *chequered* muslins, are fabricated chiefly in this district, where a species of cotton named the banga grows, necessary, although not of a very superior quality, to form the stripes of the finest muslins, for which the city of Dacca has been so long celebrated. The northern parts of Benares furnish both plain and flowered muslins, which are not ill-adapted for common use, though incapable of sustaining any competition with the beautiful and inimitable fabrics of Dacca.

" The export of the above staple articles has much decreased; and the art of manufacturing some of the finest species of muslins is in danger of being lost, the orders for them being so few, that many of the families who possess by *hereditary* instruction the art of fabricating them, have desisted, on account of the difficulty they afterwards experience in disposing of them. This decline may partly be accounted for from the utter stagnation of demand in the upper provinces since the downfall of the imperial government, prior to which these delicate and beautiful fabrics were in such estimation, not only at the court of Delhi, but among all classes of the high nobility in India, as to render it difficult to supply the demand. Among more recent causes also may be adduced the French Revolution, the degree of perfection to which this peculiar manufacture has lately been brought in Great Britain, the great diminution in the Company's investment, and the advance in the price of cotton."

With respect to the peculiar species of cotton of which the Dacca muslins are made, the following statement was given to a committee of the House of Commons, in 1830–31, by Mr. John Crawfurd, for many years in the service of the East India Company, and author of the "History of the Indian Archipelago:"

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* Hakluyt's Voyages, vol. ii. p. 390; edit. 1809.

† A Geographical, Statistical, and Historical Description of Hindostan, by Walter Hamilton, Esq., vol. i. p. 187—(1820.)

"There is a fine variety of cotton in the neighborhood of Dacca, from which I have reason to believe the fine muslins of Dacca are produced, and probably to the accidental discovery of it is to be attributed the rise of this singular manufacture; it is cultivated by the natives alone, not at all known in the English market, nor, as far as I am aware, in that of Calcutta. Its growth extends about forty miles along the banks of the Megna, and about three miles inland. I consulted Mr. Colebrook respecting the Dacca cotton, and had an opportunity of perusing the manuscripts of the late Dr. Roxburgh, which contain an account of it. He calls it a variety of the common herbaceous annual cotton of India, and states that it is longer in the staple, and affords the material from which the Dacca muslins have been always made."

The cotton manufacture in India is not carried on in a few large towns, or in one or two districts; it is universal. The growth of cotton is nearly as general as the growth of food; everywhere the women spend a portion of their time in spinning; and almost every village contains its weavers, and supplies its own inhabitants with the scanty clothing they require.* Being a domestic manufacture, and carried on with the rudest and cheapest apparatus, it requires neither capital, mills, or an assemblage of various trades. The cotton is separated from the seeds by a small rude hand-mill, or gin, turned by women.

The mill consists of two rollers of teak wood, fluted longitudinally with five or six grooves, and revolving nearly in contact. The upper roller is turned by a handle, the lower being carried along with it by means of a perpetual screw at the axis. The cotton is put in at one side, and drawn through by the revolving rollers; but the seeds, being too large to pass through the opening, are torn off and fall down on the opposite side from the cotton. †

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* Orme, in his Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire, says, "On the coast of Coromandel and in the province of Bengal, when at some distance from the high road or a principal town, it is difficult to find a village in which every man, woman, and child, is not employed in making a piece of cloth. At present, much the greatest part of the whole provinces are employed in this single manufacture." (p. 409.) "The progress of the cotton manufacture includes no less than a description of the lives of half the inhabitants of Indostan." (p. 413.)

† To the efforts of Eli Whitney, America is indebted for the value of her great staple. While the invention of the cotton gin has been the chief source of the prosperity of the Southern planter, the Northern manufacturer comes in for a large share of the benefits derived from this most important offspring of American ingenuity.

Eli Whitney, who may with justice he considered one of the most ingenious and extraordinary men that ever lived, was born in Westborough, Worcester County, Massachusetts, December 8th, 1765. His parents belonged to that respectable class in society, who, by labors of husbandry, manage, *by uniform industry*, to provide well for a rising family,—a class from whom have risen most of those who, in New-England, have attained to high eminence and usefulness.

Although Mr. Whitney's machines have benefited the people of this country, and the world at large, millions upon millions, yet, it is to be lamented that he did not reap that reward which his ingenuity and industry, as well as virtuous course of conduct, so richly merited, but died much involved in debt, while thousands who had conspired to defraud him of his just and lawful rights, were enriched by the use of his machines.

The next operation is that of bowing the cotton, to clear it from dirt and knots. A large bow, made elastic by a complication of strings, is used; this being put in contact with a heap of cotton, the workman strikes the string with a heavy wooden mallet, and its vibrations open the knots of the cotton, shake from it the dust and dirt, and raise it to a downy fleece. The hand-mill and bow have been used immemorially throughout all the countries of Asia, and have their appropriate names in the Arabic and other languages: they were formerly used in America, whence the term, still applied in commerce, "*bowed Georgia cotton.*" The hatters of Great Britain still raise their wool by the bow. The cotton being thus prepared, without any carding, it is spun by the women; the coarse yarn is spun on a one-thread wheel, and very much resembling those used at the present day by the peasantry in the west of Ireland.

The finer yarn is spun with a metallic spindle, and sometimes without a distaff; a bit of clay is attached as a weight to one end of the spindle, which is turned round with the left hand, whilst the cotton is supplied with the right; the thread is wound upon a small piece of wood. The spinster keeps her fingers dry by the use of a chalky powder.

The yarn, having been reeled and warped in the simplest possible manner, is given to the weaver, whose loom is as rude a piece of apparatus as can be imagined. It consists merely of two bamboo rollers,

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"If we should assert," said Judge William Johnson, "that the benefits of this invention (the cotton gin) exceed $100,000,000, we can prove the assertion by correct calculation."

"Who is there that, like him, has given his country and the world a machine—the product of his own skill—which has furnished a large part of its population, from childhood to age, with a lucrative employment; by which their debts have been paid off; their capitals increased; their lands trebled in value?

Mr. Whitney died on the 8th of January, 1825, and is buried in the cemetery, New-Haven, Connecticut. His tomb is after the model of Scipio's at Rome. It is simple and beautiful, and promises to endure for years. It bears the following inscription:

ELI WHITNEY,
THE INVENTOR OF THE COTTON GIN.
OF USEFUL SCIENCE AND ARTS, THE EFFICIENT PATRON AND IMPROVER.
IN THE SOCIAL RELATIONS OF LIFE, A MODEL OF EXCELLENCE.
WHILE PRIVATE AFFECTION WEEPS AT HIS TOMB, HIS COUNTRY HONORS HIS MEMORY.
BORN DECEMBER 8TH, 1765.—DIED JAN. 8TH, 1825.

The Convention of American Geologists and Naturalists who met at New-Haven in May last (1845), were invited, together with their ladies, by Mrs. Whitney, the *widow of the inventor of the cotton gin*, to attend an evening party at her house, which was accepted, where they had an elegant supper and conversazione.

"It is melancholy," says Mr. Bains, in his History of the Cotton Manufacture, p. 114, "to contrast with the sanguine eagerness of inventors, the slowness of mankind to acknowledge and reward their merits,—to observe how, on many occasions, genius, instead of realizing fame and fortune, has been pursued by disaster and opposition,—how trifling difficulties have frustrated the success of splendid discoveries,—and how those discoveries, snatched from the grasp of their broken-hearted authors, have brought princely fortunes to men whose *only* talent was in making money. When inventors fail in their projects, no one pities them; when they succeed, persecution, envy, and jealousy are their reward. Their means are generally exhausted before their discoveries become productive. They plant a vineyard, and either starve, or are driven from their inheritance before they can gather the fruit."

Would it not be greatly to the credit of the cotton manufacturing interest in this country and in Europe, to present Mrs. Whitney with some token of their respect and veneration for the memory of the inventor of the Cotton gin?

one for the warp and the other for the web, and a pair of headles. The shuttle performs the double office of shuttle and lay, and for this purpose is made like a large netting needle, and of a length rather more than the breadth of the web.* This apparatus the weaver carries to a tree, under which he digs a hole (which may be called the *treadle-hole*) large enough to contain his legs and the lower tackle. He then stretches his warp by fastening his bamboo rollers at a proper distance from each other, by means of wooden pins. The headle-jacks he fastens to some convenient branch of the tree over his head: two loops underneath, *in which he inserts his great toes*, serve instead of treadles; and his long shuttle, which also performs the office of lay, draws the weft through the warp, and afterwards strikes it home to the fell. "There is not so much as an expedient for rolling up the warp: it is stretched out to the full length of the web, which makes the house of the weaver insufficient to contain him. He is therefore obliged to work continually in the open air; and every return of inclement weather interrupts him."†

Forbes describes the weavers in Guzerat, near Baroche, as fixing their looms at sun-rise under the shade of tamarind and mango trees. In some parts of India, however, as on the banks of the Ganges, the weavers work under the cover of their sheds, fixing the gear of their looms to a bamboo in the roof. They size their warps with a starch made from the root called *kandri*. When chequered muslins are wrought, three persons are employed at each loom.

Some authentic particulars concerning the habits and remuneration of the Hindoos engaged in the making of cotton cloth, are contained in an unpublished account of the districts of Puraniya (Purneah,) Patna, and Dinajpur, by Dr. Francis Hamilton, better known as Dr. F. Buchanan, (he having taken the name of Hamilton,) the author of the "Journey from Madras to Mysore, Canara, and Malabar." This account of the above-named provinces near the Ganges is in several manuscript volumes in the library of the India House, in London. We learn from this elaborate survey, that the spinning and weaving of cotton prevails throughout these provinces. The fine yarns are spun with an iron spindle, and without distaff, generally by women of rank; no caste is disgraced here by spinning, as in the south of India; the women do not employ all their time at this work, but only so much as is allowed by their domestic occupations. The coarse yarns are spun on a small wheel turned by the hand. The hand-mill is used to free the cotton from its seeds, and the bow to tease it. The following capital is required for the weaver's business: a loom, 2½ rupees; sticks for warping and a wheel for winding, 2 anas; a shop, 4 rupees; thread for two ready money pieces, worth 6 rupees each, 5 rupees;—total, 11 rupees 11 anas; to which must be added a month's subsistence. The man and his wife warp, wind, and weave, two pieces of this kind in a month, and he has 7 rupees (14 shillings stg.) profit, deducting, however, the tear and wear of his apparatus, which is a trifle. A person hired to weave, can in a month make three pieces of this kind, and is allowed 2 anas in the rupee of their value, which is 2¼ rupees (4*s.* 6*d.*) a month. The finest goods cost 2 rupees a piece for weaving. Dr. Hamilton, in his observations on another district, states the average profit of a loom engaged in weaving coarse goods to be 28 rupees (£2. 16*s.*) a year, or something less than 13*d.* a week. At Puraniya and Dinajpur the journeymen cotton-weavers usually made from 2 to 2½ rupees (from 4*s.* to 5*s.*) a month. At Patna a man and his wife made from 3 to 4 rupees (from 6*s.* to 8*s.*) a month, by beating and cleaning cotton; and each loom employed in making chequered muslins, has a profit of 108½ rupees a year (£10. 16*s.*), that is, 1*s.* 4*d.* a week for each of the three persons who work the loom. The average earnings of a journeyman weaver, therefore, appear to be from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* per week. At Bangalore, and in some other parts of southern India, this author states that weavers earn from 3*d.* to 8*d.* a day, according as they are employed on coarse or fine goods;* but this is so much above the usual remuneration for labor in India, that, if the statement is not erroneous, it must be of extremely limited application. On the same authority, a woman spinning coarse yarn, can earn 1⅜*d.* per day.†

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* The shuttle is not always of this length. Hoole, in his "Mission to India," represents it as requiring to be *thrown*, in which case it must be short; and a drawing of a Candian weaver, in the Magazine of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, shows the shuttle of the same size as our modern shawl shuttle. Indeed, we have abundant evidence that the Indians employed shuttles of this latter description from time immemorial. The Chinese also use shuttles of the same description.

† Mill's History of British India, book ii. ch. 8.

A fact is mentioned by Dr. Hamilton, in his unpublished account of Patna, which affords a striking indication as to the national character of the Hindoos—" All Indian weavers, who work for the common market, make the woof of one end of the cloth coarser than that of the other, and attempt to sell to the unwary by the fine end, although every one almost, who deals with them, is perfectly aware of the circumstance, and although in the course of his life, any weaver may not ever have an opportunity of gaining by this means, yet he continues the practice, with the hope of being able at some time or other, to take advantage of the purchaser of his goods."

The East India Company has a factory at Dacca, and also in other parts of India,—not, as the American use of the word "factory" might seem to imply, a mill, for the manufacture is entirely domestic—but a commercial establishment in a manufacturing district, where the spinners, weavers, and other workmen are chiefly employed in providing the goods which the Company export to Europe. This establishment is under the management of a commercial resident, who agrees for the kinds of goods that may be required, and superintends the execution of the orders received from the presidencies. Such is the poverty of the workmen, and even of the manufacturers who employ them, that the resident has to advance beforehand the funds necessary, in order to produce the goods. The consequence of this system is, that the manufacturers and their men are in a state of dependence almost amounting to servitude. The resident obtains their labor at his own price, and, being supported by the civil and military power, he establishes a monopoly of the worst kind, and productive of the most prejudicial effects to industry. The Act of 1833, which put an end to the commercial character of the Company, will of course, abolish all the absurd and oppressive monopolies it exercised.

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* Buchanan's Journey through Mysore, vol. i. pp. 216-218.

† Ibid. vol. iii. p. 317.

It cannot but seem astonishing, that in a department of industry, where the raw material has been so grossly neglected, where the machinery is so rude, and where there is so little division of labor, the results should be fabrics of the most exquisite delicacy and beauty, *unrivalled by the products of any other nation, even those best skilled in the mechanic arts.* This anomaly is explained by the remarkably fine sense of touch possessed by that effeminate people, by their patience and gentleness, and by the hereditary continuance of a particular species of manufacture in families through many generations, which leads to the training of children from their very infancy in the processes of the art. Mr. Orme observes—" The women spin the thread destined for the cloth, and then deliver it to the men, who have fingers to model it as exquisitely as these have prepared it. The rigid, clumsy fingers of a European would scarcely be able to make a piece of canvass with the instruments which are all that an Indian employs in making a piece of cambric (muslin). It is further remarkable, that every distinct kind of cloth is the production of a particular district, in which the fabric has been transmitted, perhaps for centuries, from father to son,—*a custom which must have conduced to the perfection of the manufacture.*"* The last mentioned fact may be considered as a kind of division of labor.

Mr. Mill thus explains the unequalled manual skill of the Indian weaver:—" It is a sedentary occupation, and thus in harmony with his predominant inclination. It requires patience, of which he has an inexhaustible fund. It requires little bodily exertion, of which he is always exceedingly sparing; and the finer the production, the more slender the force which he is called upon to apply. But this is not all. The weak and delicate frame of the Hindu is accompanied with an acuteness of external sense, particularly of touch, which is altogether unrivalled; and the flexibility of his fingers is equally remarkable. The hand of the Hindu, therefore, constitutes an organ adapted to the finest operations of the loom, in a degree which is almost or altogether peculiar to himself.†

It is, then, to a physical organization in the natives, admirably suited to the processes of spinning and weaving; to the possession of the raw material in the greatest abundance; to the possession, also, of the *most brilliant dyes* for *staining* and *printing* the cloth; to a climate which renders the colors lively and durable; and to the hereditary practice, by particular castes, classes and families, both of the manual operations and chemical processes required in the manufacture;—it is to these causes, with very little aid from science, and in an almost barbarous state of the mechanical arts, that India owes her long supremacy in the manufacture of cotton.

Bengal is celebrated for the production of the finest muslins; the Coromandel coast for the best chintzes and calicoes; and Surat, for strong and inferior goods of every kind. The cottons of Bengal go under the names of *casses*, *amans*, and *garats;* and the handkerchiefs are called Burgoses and Steinkirkes. *Table cloths* of superior quality are made at *Patna*. The *basins*, or *basinets*, come from the Northern

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* Orme's Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire, p. 413.

† Mill's History of British India, book ii. c. 8.

Circars. Condaver furnishes the beautiful handkerchiefs of Masulipatam, the fine colors of which are partly obtained from a plant called *chage*, which grows on the banks of the Krishna, and on the coast of the Bay of Bengal. The chintzes and ginghams are chiefly made at Masulipatam, Madras, St. Thomé, and Paliamcotta. The long cloths and fine pullicats are produced in the presidency of Madras. The coarse piece-goods, under the name of baftas, doutis, and pullicats, as well as common muslins and chintzes, are extensively manufactured in the district of which Surat is the port. Besides all these, there is an endless variety of fabrics, many of which are known in the markets of Europe, Asia, and Africa.

The commerce of the Indians in these fabrics has been extensive, from the Christian era to the end of the last century. For many hundred years, Persia, Arabia, Syria, Egypt, Abyssinia, and all the eastern parts of Africa, were supplied with a considerable portion of their cottons and muslins, and with all which they consumed of the finest qualities, from the marts of India. This commerce existed in the last age, and is described by the Abbé Raynal* and Legoux de Flaix. The blue calicoes of Guzerat were long bought by the English and Dutch for their trade with Guinea. The great marts of this commerce on the west coast of India were Surat and Calicut, the former of which is near to Baroche, the manufacturing capital of Guzerat, in which province a considerable part of the exported cottons of India were made; and on the east coast, Masulipatam, Madras, and St. Thomé, whence the varied and extensive products of the Coromandel coast are exported.

Owing to the beauty and cheapness of Indian muslins, chintzes, and calicoes, there was a period when the manufacturers of all the countries of Europe were apprehensive of being ruined by their competition. In the seventeenth century, the Dutch and English East India Companies imported these goods in large quantities; they became highly fashionable for ladies' and children's dresses, as well as for drapery and furniture, and the coarse calicoes were used to line garments. To such an extent did this proceed, that as early as 1678 a loud outcry was made in England against the admission of Indian goods, which, it was maintained, were ruining the woollen manufacture,—a branch of industry which for centuries was regarded with an almost superstitious veneration, as a kind of palladium of the national prosperity, and which was incomparably the most extensive branch of manufactures till the close of the eighteenth century. A few extracts from pamphlets published in the seventeenth and at the beginning of the eighteenth century, will not only afford amusement, but will show the wonderful commercial revolution which has since been effected by machinery. In the year 1678, a pamphlet was issued under the title—"The Ancient Trade Decayed and Repaired again," in which the author thus bewails the interference of cotton with woollen fabrics.

"This trade (the woollen) is very much hindered by our own people, who do wear many foreign commodities instead of our own; as may be instanced in many particulars; viz. instead of green *sey*, that was wont to be used for children's frocks, is now used painted and Indian-stained and striped calico; and instead of a perpetuana or shalloon to line men's coats with, is used sometimes a glazed calico, which in the whole is not above 12*d.* cheaper, and abundantly worse. And sometimes is used a *Bangale* that is brought from India, both for linings to coats, and for petticoats too; yet our English ware is better and cheaper than this, only it is thinner for the summer. To remedy this, it would be necessary to lay a very high impost upon all such commodities as these are, and that no calicoes or other sort of linen be suffered to be glazed."

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* Histoire Philosophique et Politique des Etablissements du Commerce des Européens dans les deux Indes, tom. ii. liv. iv. ch. 4.

"The commodities that we chiefly receive from the East Indies are calicoes, muslins, Indian wrought silks, pepper, saltpetre, indigo, &c. The advantage of the Company is chiefly in their muslins and Indian silks, (a great value in these commodities being comprehended in a small bulk,) and these becoming the general wear in England." "Fashion is truly termed a witch; the dearer and scarcer any commodity, the more the mode; 30*s.* a yard for muslins, and only the shadow of a commodity when procured."

So sagacious and far-sighted an author as Daniel de Foe, (author of Robinson Crusoe,) did not escape the general notion, that it was not merely injurious to the woollen and silk manufactures, but also a national evil, TO HAVE CLOTHING CHEAP FROM ABROAD RATHER THAN TO MANUFACTURE IT AT HOME. In his *Weekly Review*, which contains so many opinions on trade, credit, and currency far beyond the age, he thus laments the large importations of Indian goods.

"The general fancy of the people runs upon East India goods to that degree, that the *chintz* and *painted calicoes*, which before were only made use of for carpets, quilts, &c., and to clothe children and ordinary people, become now the dress of our ladies; and such is the power of a mode as we saw our persons of quality dressed in stuffs which but a few years before their chambermaids would have thought too ordinary for them: the chintz was advanced from lying upon their floors to their backs, from the foot cloth to the petticoat; and even the queen herself at this time was pleased to appear in China silks and calico. Nor was this all, but it crept into our houses, closets, and bed-chambers; curtains, cushions, chairs, and as last beds themselves, were nothing but calicoes or Indian stuffs; and in short, almost everything that used to be made of wool or silk, relating either to the dress of the women or the furniture of our houses, was supplied by the Indian trade.

"Above half of the (woollen) manufacture was entirely lost, half of the people scattered and ruined, and all this by the intercourse of the East India trade."

However exaggerated and absurd De Foe's estimate of the injury caused to the woollen manufacture, as manifested by the small value of the whole importations of Indian fabrics, at that time, as well as (much more decisively) by the experience of recent times, when the woollen manufacture has sustained the incomparably more formidable competition of the English cotton manufacture, it is evident from his testimony, and that of other writers, that Indian calicoes, muslins, and chintzes, had become common in England at the close of the seventeenth century. De Foe's complaint was not of an evil existing in

1708, when he wrote, but of one a few years earlier; for he says in another place, that the "PROHIBITION OF INDIAN GOODS" had "AVERTED THE RUIN OF ENGLISH MANUFACTURES, AND REVIVED THEIR PROSPERITY." This prohibition took place by the Act 11 and 12, William III., cap. 10., (1700,) which forbid the introduction of Indian silks and printed calicoes for domestic use, either as apparel or furniture, under a penalty of £200 on the wearer or seller; and as this Act did not prevent the continued use of the goods, which were probably smuggled from the continent of Europe, other acts for the same purpose were passed at a later date.

A volume published in the year 1728, entitled, "A Plan of the English Commerce," shows that the evil of a consumption of Indian manufactures still prevailed, and that it was ascribed to a cause for which the writer saw no remedy, namely, the *will of the ladies*, or in his own words, their "*passion for their fashion.*" The other countries of Europe are represented as equally suffering from Indian competition and *female perverseness*, and as attempting in the same way to find a remedy in legislative prohibition.

"The calicoes are sent from the Indies by land into Turkey, by land and inland seas into Muscovy and Tartary, and about by long-sea into Europe and America, till in general they are become a grievance, and almost all the European nations restrain and prohibit them."

"Two things," says the writer, "among us are too ungovernable, viz., our *passions* and our *fashions*.

"Should I ask the ladies whether they would dress by law, or clothe by act of parliament, they would ask me *whether they were to be statute fools*, and to be made pageants and pictures of?—whether the sex was to be set up for our jest, and the parliament had nothing to do but make Indian queens of them? That they claim liberty as well as the men; and as they expect to do what they please, and say what they please, so they will wear what they please, and dress how they please.

"It is true that the liberty of the ladies, their *passion* for their *fashion*, has been frequently injurious to the manufacturers of Great Britain, and is so still in some cases; but I do not see so easy a remedy for that, as for some other things of the like nature. The ladies have suffered some little restraint that way, as in the wearing East India silks, instead of English; and calicoes and other things instead of worsted stuff and the like; and we do not see they are pleased with it."

It appears, then, that not more than a century ago, the cotton fabrics of India were so beautiful and cheap, that nearly all the governments of Europe thought it necessary to prohibit them, or to load them with heavy duties, IN ORDER TO PROTECT THEIR OWN MANUFACTURES. How surprising a revolution has since taken place! The Indians have not lost their former skill; but a power has arisen, which has robbed them of their ancient ascendancy. The following document furnishes superabundant proof how a manufacture which has existed without a rival for thousands of years, is withering under the competition of a power which is as it were but of yesterday: it would be well if it did not also illustrate the very different measure of protection and justice which governments usually afford to their subjects at home, and to those of their remote dependencies.

PETITION OF NATIVES OF BENGAL, RELATIVE TO DUTIES ON COTTON AND SILK.

"Calcutta, 1st Sept. 1831.

"*To the Right Honorable the Lords of His Majesty's Privy Council for Trade, &c.*

"The humble petition of the undersigned, Manufacturers and Dealers in *Cotton* and *Silk Piece-goods*, the fabrics of Bengal:

"Sheweth—That of late years your Petitioners have found their business nearly superseded by the introduction of the fabrics of Great Britain into Bengal, the importation of which augments every year, to the great prejudice of the native manufactures.

"That the fabrics of Great Britain are consumed in Bengal, without any duties being levied thereon to protect the native fabrics.

"That the fabrics of Bengal are charged with the following duties when they are used in Great Britain—

"On manufactured cottons, 10 per cent.
"On manufactured silks, 24 per cent.

"Your petitioners most humbly implore your Lordships' consideration of these circumstances, and they feel confident that no disposition exists in England to shut the door against the industry of any part of the inhabitants of this great empire.

"They therefore pray to be admitted to the privilege of British subjects, and humbly entreat your Lordships to allow the cotton and silk fabrics of Bengal to be used in Great Britain free of duty, *or at the same rate which may be charged on British fabrics consumed in Bengal.*[*]

"Your Lordships must be aware of the immense advantages the British manufacturers derive from their skill in constructing and using machinery, which enables them to undersell the unscientific manufacturers of Bengal in their own country: and, although your petitioners are not sanguine in expecting to derive any great advantage from having their prayer granted, their minds would feel gratified by such a manifestation of your Lordships' good will towards them; and such an instance of justice to the natives of India would not fail to endear the British government to them.

"They therefore confidently trust, that your Lordships' righteous consideration will be extended to them as British subjects, without exception of *sect*, *country*, or *color*.

"And your petitioners, as in duty bound, will ever pray."

[Signed by 117 natives of high respectability.]

Dacca, notwithstanding its present insignificance as compared with its former grandeur, may nevertheless still be classed among second rate cities. It has a population of 150,000 inhabitants, which is nearly a third more than the city of Baltimore contains. Some new brick dwellings have silently sprung up here and there, it may also be observed, within the last few years; and this city can now boast an Oil Mill driven by steam, and an Iron Suspension Bridge. Three more steam engines are in the course of erection.* On the whole, an increase may be looked for, rather than the contrary, in the wealth, population, and importance of the city of Dacca.

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[*] This reasonable request was not complied with, the duty on India cotton being still 10 per cent. The extra duty of 3½*d.* per yard on printed cottons was taken off when the excise duty on English prints was repealed, in 1831. English cottons imported into India only pay a duty of 2½ per cent.

It would be curious to compare the gradual decrease of the population, with the falling off of the manufacture of those beautiful cotton fabrics, for which this city was once without a rival in the world.† The first falling off in the Dacca trade, took place so far back as 1801, previous to which, the yearly advances made by the East India Company, and private traders, for Dacca muslins, were estimated at upwards of twenty-five lacs of rupees.‡ In 1807, the Company's investment had fallen to 595,900, and the private trade to about 560,200. In 1813 the private trade did not exceed 205,950, and that of the Company was scarcely more considerable. And in 1817 the English commercial residency was altogether discontinued. The French and Dutch factories had been abandoned many years before. The division of labor was carried to a great extent in the manufacture of fine muslins. In spinning the very fine thread, more especially, a great degree of skill was attained. It was spun with the fingers on a "*Takwa*," or fine steel spindle, by young women, who could only work during the early part of the morning, while the dew was on the ground; for such was the extreme tenuity of the fibre, that it would not bear manipulation after the sun had risen. One retti of cotton could thus be spun into a thread eighty cubits long; which was sold by the spinners at one rupee, eight annas, per sicca weight. The "Raffugars," or *Darners*, were also particularly skilful. They could *remove an entire thread from a piece of muslin*, and *replace it by one of a finer texture*. The cotton used for the finest thread, was grown in the immediate neighborhood of Dacca, more especially about Sunergong. Its fibre is too short, however, to admit of its being worked up by any, except that most wonderful of all machines —the human hand. The art of making the very fine muslin fabrics is now lost.

In 1820, a resident of Dacca, on a special order received from China, procured the manufacture of two pieces of muslin, each ten yards long by one wide, and weighing ten and a half sicca rupees. The price of each piece was 100 sicca rupees. In 1822 the same individual received a second commission for two similar pieces, from the same quarter; but the parties who had supplied him on the former occasion had died in the mean time, and he was unable to execute the commission.

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* Asiatic Researches, vol. xvii.

† If Providence should continue to bless the work of our hands, and our life and health be preserved, we indulge the hope of being able, at no very distant period, to investigate this subject more fully.

‡ *Lac of rupees*, is one hundred thousand rupees, which at 55 cents each, amount to fifty-five thousand dollars, or 2s. 6d. sterling to £12,500.

The annual investment, called the "Malbus Khás," for the royal wardrobe at Delhi, absorbed a great part of the finest fabrics in former times: the extreme beauty of some of these muslins, was sufficiently indicated by the names they bore: such as, "*Abrawan*," running water; "*Siebnem*," evening dew, &c. The cotton manufacture has not yet arrived at anything like this perfection with us, and, probably, never will.*

Coarse cotton piece goods still continue to be manufactured at Dacca, though from the extreme cheapness of English cloths, it is not improbable that the native manufacture will be altogether superseded ere long.

In 1823–4, cotton piece goods, mostly coarse, passed the Dacca Custom House, to the value of 1,442,101. In 1829–30 the value of the same export was 969,952 only. There was a similar falling off in *silk* and *embroidered* goods during the same period.

In the export of the articles of cotton yarn again, there has been an increase. In 1813 the value was 4,480 rupees only; whereas in 1821–22 it amounted to 39,319 rupees. From that period it has, however, decreased; and in 1829–30, the value of the native cotton yarn exported from Dacca, amounted to 29,475 rupees only.

Annexed are two statements—one showing the comparative prices of Dacca cloths, manufactured from yarn spun in the country, and from British cotton yarn—the other, the comparative prices of muslins now manufactured at Dacca, and of the same description of cloth, the produce of British looms. These cannot fail to be interesting at the present moment, and their general accuracy may be relied on.

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* The manufacture of fine muslin, was attempted both in Lancashire and at Glasgow, about the year 1780, with weft spun by the jenny. The attempt failed, owing to the coarseness of the yarn. Even with Indian weft, muslins could not be made to compete with these of the East. But when the mule was brought into general use, in 1785, both weft and warp were produced sufficiently fine for muslins; and so quickly did the weaver avail himself of the improvement in the yarn, that no less than 500,000 pieces of muslin were manufactured in Great Britain in the year 1787. In a "Report of the Select Committee of the Court of Directors of the East India Company, upon the subject of the Cotton Manufacture of this Country," made in the year 1793, it is said, that "*every shop offers British Muslins for sale equal in appearance, and of more elegant patterns than those of India, for one-fourth, or perhaps more than one-third, less in price.*" "Muslin began to be made nearly at the same time at Bolton, at Glasgow, and at Paisley, each place adopting the peculiar description of fabric which resembled most those goods it had been accustomed to manufacture; and, in consequence of this judicious distribution at first, each place has continued to maintain a superiority in the production of its own article. Jaconets, both coarse and fine. but of a stout fabric, checked and striped muslins, and other articles of the heavier description of this branch, are manufactured in Bolton, and its neighborhood. Book, mull, and leno muslins, and jaconets of a lighter fabric than those made in Lancashire, are manufactured in Glasgow. Sewed and tambored muslins are almost exclusively made there and in Paisley."—*Encyclopædia Britannica.*

Comparative Statement of the Prices of Dacca Cloths, Manufactured with Cotton Yarn Spun in the Country, and from British Cotton Yarn.

ASSORTMENTS.		DACCA MUSLINS.	
		Manufactured with Country Cotton Thread.	Manufactured with European Cotton Yarn.
Mulmuls, 40 by 2,	1st sort	8 to 9	3 to 4
	2nd ditto	10 to 12	5 to 6
	3rd ditto	14 to 15	9 to 10
Sablams, 40 by 2,	1st ditto	4 to 4½	2½
	2nd ditto	5½ to 6	3
	3rd ditto	11 to 12	6
	4th ditto	14 to 15	8
	5th ditto	17 to 18	10 to 11
Sarbans, 40 cubits,	1st ditto	3	1½
	2nd ditto	3½ to 3¾	1¾
Allabalis Adi,	1st ditto	5 to 5½	3
	2nd ditto	7 to 7½	4
	3rd ditto	8 to 9	5 to 5½
	4th ditto	9 to 10	6 to 6½
Tarindans, 40 cubits,	1st ditto	4½ to 5	3
	2nd ditto	6½ to 7	4
	3rd ditto	11 to 12	7 to 8
	4th ditto	13 to 14	10 to 11
Sarf, per pair,	1st ditto	5	3
	2nd ditto	5 to 5½	3½ to 4
	3rd ditto	9 to 10	5½ to 6
Dhotis, per pair,	1st ditto	5	3
	2nd ditto	6 to 6½	3½
	3rd ditto	7 to 7½	5
	4th ditto	8 to 8½	6
	5th ditto	10 10½ to 11	8 to 8½
	6th ditto	9 to 11	7 to 7½
Sheraganj Cossas, 40 cubits,	1st ditto	4	2¾
	2nd ditto	5	3¼
	3rd ditto	5½ to 6	4
	4th ditto	7 to 7½	5
	5th ditto	8 to 8½	6
Sheraganj Hamam, 40 by 3,	1st ditto	5	3½
	2nd ditto	6 to 6½	4
	3rd ditto	7½ to 8	5
	4th ditto	9 to 9½	6 to 7
	5th ditto	11 to 12	8 to 9
	6th ditto	14 to 15	10 to 11
Jamdan Dhotis, 10 cubits,	1st ditto	5½ to 6	4
	2nd ditto	6½ to 7	4½
	3rd ditto	7½ to 8	5

Comparative Statement of the Prices of Muslins Manufactured at Dacca, and the Produce of the British Looms.

ASSORTMENTS.	Manufactured at Dacca.	Produce of the British looms.
Jamdaní, with small spot........................1st sort.	25	8
" " 2nd sort	16	5
Jamdaní, Mabíposh..................................	27 to 28	6
" Diagonal pattern..............................	12 to 13	4 to 4½
Jaconet Muslin, 40½, corresponding ....1st ditto	38 to 40	20 to 22
with Jungle Cossas........... ....2d ditto	24 to 25	9 to 10
Nyansook, 40 to 2½..................................	8 to 9	5 to 6
Cambric, corresponding with Camiz Cossas..............	13 to 14	6 to 9½
Jamdaní blue or red sprigs..............................	15 to 16	4 to 5
Jamdaní Sarîs..................................	12 to 13	5 to 5½
Book Muslin, corresponding with Mullmulls............	10 to 11	7 to 8
gahun, 48 by 3..................................	28 to 30	14 to 15

The manufacture of cotton, as we have seen, was general in India, and had attained high excellence in the age of the first Greek historian, *that is, in the fifth century before Christ*, at which time it had already existed for an unknown period; yet eighteen centuries more elapsed before it was introduced into Italy or Constantinople, or even secured a footing in the neighboring empire of China. Though so well suited to hot climates, we have seen that cottons were known rather as a curiosity, than as a common article of dress in Egypt and Persia, five centuries after the Greeks had heard of the "wool-bearing trees" of India; in Egypt, as has been shown, the manufacture never reached any considerable degree of excellence, and the muslins worn by the higher classes have always been imported from India.* In Spain, the manufacture, after flourishing to some degree, became nearly extinct. In Italy, Germany, and Flanders, it had also a lingering and ignoble existence.

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* In Arabia and the neighboring countries, cottons and muslins came gradually into use; and the manufacture was spread, by the commercial activity and enterprise of the early followers of Mohammed, throughout the extended territories subdued by their arms. "It is recorded of the fanatical Omar, the immediate successor of the Arabian impostor, that he preached in a tattered cotton gown, torn in *twelve* places; and of Ali, his contemporary, who assumed the caliphate after him, that on the day of his inauguration, he went to the mosque dressed in a thin cotton gown, tied round him with a girdle, a coarse turban on his head, his slippers in one hand, and his bow in the other, instead of a walking staff."—*Crichton's History of Arabia*, vol. i., pp. 397, 403.

REPORT ON IRON AND COAL TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

At a Convention assembled in Philadelphia on January 9th, 1846, in pursuance of a call from the "Iron and Coal Association of the State of Pennsylvania," a committee was appointed to make "a Report upon the Iron and Coal Trade of this state, and their effect upon agriculture," to that association. This committee, from causes that it is needless to detail here, have done nothing whatever, up to this time, in discharge of the duties assigned to them. Under these circumstances the undersigned have been selected as a committee, from the association aforesaid, to make a report upon the subject referred to, and to publish the information and facts collected at the Convention. These facts were obtained by circulars addressed to almost every iron establishment in the state, within the knowledge of the committee, and from their replies has been selected the information now communicated; this information, so far as it goes, ought to command implicit confidence, as we have every reason to believe it accurate and precise. The hope was entertained at that Convention that returns would be obtained from every establishment in the state, and thus enable the committee, selected by the Convention, to embody such a volume of *facts* as would have greatly enlightened the public mind in relation to the magnitude and importance of those vast branches of our national industry, and without which a nation can neither be independent in peace or war; for they are the agents of a civilization, and an intellectual happiness that has no limits or bounds. It has never been the wish of the manufacturers to theorize upon such subjects, but to furnish every day's experience, and to rest their cause entirely and exclusively upon results. Mr. McDuffie has said that the arguments upon the tariff, used by its advocates, have been *stereotyped*, and it is true—they have been stereotyped as eternal truths and verified by universal experience—the only test of truth. The subject of the tariff is so simple and plain to the practical operator, that he cannot conceive the art by which the opponents of it have involved it in so much mystery and difficulty. Their theories, and all the predictions which they have from time to time made, are constantly falsified by *experience*, and yet they cling to them with more pertinacity. This cannot be better illustrated than by the present tariff bill, which, when under discussion, they insisted was so highly *protective* that it would produce no revenue, and what has been the result? Has it not been *emphatically* a *Revenue Tariff?* and has it not raised the government from bankruptcy to their proper standing among the nations of the earth—from being a beggar both at home and abroad for a petty loan, to a full and overflowing treasury? Has it not, at the same time, built up the commerce and agriculture of the country, and afforded the most remunerating prices for labor? and is there a cry of complaint from any portion of the free population of the country? If so, where are the memorials to Congress?

In 1839, the iron business was in a sound and healthy condition, and the attention of capitalists was largely attracted to it. It was in this year that the long-sought discovery of using anthracite coal, as the combustible in the furnaces and rolling mills, was perfected, and this discovery unlocked treasures, and by it a new impulse was given to the business throughout the land, and it was improved with our usual energy. It aroused the bituminous coal operators *from their sleep,* and introduced into our state that process of making coke pig iron, which had so long been perfected in England, and which gave birth to so many splendid establishments.

At this period the price of iron and duty was as follows:—

	Bar Iron, English.	Duty.	Pig Metal, American.	Duty.	Blooms.	Duty.
1839	£10.0.0	$21.00	$33.00	$8.50	$75.00	$23.00
1840	9.0.0	18.00	29.00	8.00	60.00	21.80
1841	7.0.0	"	"	"	"	"

In 1841, although the duty fell under the compromise bill only $3.00 per ton on bar iron, and 50 cts. per ton on pig metal, from 1839, yet from the low price of iron in England, and the over production there, this reduction was felt in the trade throughout the land, and Congress was solicited at the extra session of that year to prevent the compromise bill from going fully into effect, as *the certain result of such a reduction of duties would be to paralyze the industry of the country, and bring ruin upon all those engaged in the trade;* but the voice of the trade was disregarded, and prices fell accordingly—

July and August.	Bar Iron, English.	Duty.	Pig Metal, American,	Duty.	Blooms.	Duty.
1842	£5.10	$7.50	$23.00	$4.50	$46.00	$8.20
1843	4.10	——	19.00	——	38.00	——

These prices tell to any intelligent mind their *own tale*—American bar iron was brought down in price from $100 in 1839 to $75.00—blooms from $75.00 to $38.00—pig metal from $33.00 to $19.00, and this stopped our furnaces, our rolling mills, our forges, our founderies, our cutlery establishments, and our workshops, and dismay and ruin pervaded the land. Nothing could be more dreary and desolate than the year 1842, and the voice of complaint and distress was heard from every part of our country, and is so deeply engraven upon the memory of every statesman, that it cannot be forgotten. It brought Congress to their senses, and they passed the bill of 1842, and which would have been passed by a *large majority,* if they had not connected with it the land question; this brought Congress into conflict with the acting President, who vetoed the bill twice. But the western members nobly gave up their favorite measure, and the present tariff bill was passed by a *union of Whig and Democratic votes.* This union gave us every assurance that the bill would be permanent and stable, and that every capitalist was free to invest his money, exercise his skill, and employ his time and thoughts, under the *pledged faith* of the government; and let us now inquire what has been the result of this wise and sound legislation, and whether the manufacturers have improved their advantages.

By the census of 1840, the number of Furnaces in Pennsylvania was 213—Rolling Mills, Bloomeries and Forges, 169. In March, 1842, returns were procured with great industry and labor, from the following seventy-nine of these Furnaces, being 72 Charcoal and 7 Anthracite Furnaces:

NAMES.		LOCATION AND PROPRIETORS.			Pig Iron	No. of hands employed.
Hopewell Furnace,		Bedford County,		D. Loy & Co.	960	70
Sarah	do	Do	do		1,283	74
Elizabeth	do	Do	do		1,478	85
Hopewell	do	Do	do	Milliken & Benedict	800	60
Moslem	do	Berks	do	N. V. R. Hunter	600	60
Mount Penn	do	Do	do	John Swartz	1,000	73
Oley	do	Do	do	A. U. Snyder	800	65
Joanna	do	Do	do	Darling & Smith	700	80
Phœnixville	do	Chester	do	Reeves & Whittaker	1,100	67
Warwick	do	Do	do		400	56
Isabella	do	Do	do	Potts & Rutter	800	35
Greenwood	do	Do	do		800	30
Logan	do	Centre	do	Valentines & Thomas	1,100	70
Howard	do	Do	do	Valentines, Harris & Co.	1,200	70
Centre	do	Do	do	James Irvin & Co.	1,200	70
Hecla	do	Do	do	W. W. Houston & Co	1,100	65
Eagle	do	Do	do	R. Curtin & Sons	1,100	65
Julianna	do	Do	do	David Adams	800	40
Washington	do	Clinton	do	Irvin, Pyle & Co.	1,000	70
Lucinda	do	Clarion	do	J. Reynolds & Co.	1,200	70
Shippensville	do	Do	do	Shippen & Black	1,200	69
Beaver	do	Do	do	Long, Blackstone & Co.	1,200	71
Madison	do	Do	do	Mathiot, Miller & Co.	1,000	70
Jefferson	do	Do	do	A. Plummer & Co.	800	60
Clarion	do	Do	do	C. Myers	1,200	70
Clinton	do	Do	do	Claps & Semore	1,000	70
Montour 3	do	Columbia	do	Thomas Chambers } Anth'cite	7,800	175
Columbia	do	Do	do	Patterson	1,440	35
Roaring Cr'k	do	Do	do	T. Dunlap	1,450	36
Port Royal 2	do	Dauphin	do	J. Jewett & Sons	2,500	80
Mt. Pleasant	do	Franklin	do	S. Dunn	150	20
Southampton	do	Do	do	Charles Wharton	850	75
Carrick	do	Do	do	Dunn & Bard	400	40
Montalto	do	Do	do	S. & H. Hughes	800	120
Caledonia	do	Do	do	J. D. Paxton & Co.	800	75
Mill Creek	do	Hunting'n	do	J. H. Dorsey & Co	1,000	70
Springfield	do	Do	do	S. Royer & Co	1,200	75
Alleghany	do	Do	do	E. Baker & Co.	1,500	110
Etna	do	Do	do	H. S. Spang	1,200	80
Rebecca	do	Do	do	Shoenberger & Co.	1,400	82
Huntingdon	do	Do	do	do do	1,700	92
Elizabeth	do	Lancaster	do	Coleman's Estate	1,325	100
Mt. Vernon	do	Do	do	E. B. Grubb	1,450	75
Mt. Hope	do	Do	do	do	1,450	75
Colebrook	do	Lebanon	do	Coleman's Estate	1,500	120
Cornwall	do	Do	do	do do	1,500	100
Monroe	do	Do	do	S. B. Seidel	500	30
Catawissa	do	Columbia	do	Lloyd & Thomas	700	41
Liberty	do	Do	do	Thomas Dunlap	1,000	70
Esther	do	Do	do		1,500	110
Berwick	do	Do	do		700	41
Pinegrove	do	Cumberl'd	do		900	125
Brookland	do	Mifflin	do	M. Crisswell & Co.	1 200	75
Matilda	do	Do	do	Cottrell & Penn	1,500	50
Union	do	Hunting'n	do		1,250	68
Greenwood	do	Do	do	Rawle & Hall	1,000	56
Perry	do	Perry	do		300	35
Juniata	do	Do	do	Fisher & Co.	500	45
Oak Grove	do	Do	do	Pleiss	600	60
Caroline	do	Do	do	Fisher & Co.	800	45
Montebello	do	Do	do	do do	1,400	60
Swatara	do	Schuylkill	do	Eckart & Guilford	1,400	75
				Forward,	73,985	4,326

NAMES.	LOCATION AND PROPRIETORS.		Pig Iron.	No. of hands employed.
79 Furnaces	brought forward		73,985	4,326
Codorus Furnace,	York County,	E. & C. B. Grubb..........	1,400	75
Margaretta do	Do do	H. Y. Slaymaker & Co......	900	90
York do	Do do	S. R. Slaymaker & Co......	1.000	70
Maria do	North'ton do	Smith & Richards..........	1,200	75
Jackson do	Venango do	Parker & Royer............	800	47
Venango do	Do do	David Phipps..............	700	45
	Do do	Cross & McKee.............	500	35
	Do do	M. & J. McConnel..........	500	37
	Do do	L. R. Reno................	700	48
Van Buren do	Do do	Hoye & Cross..............	700	46
Slab do	Do do	James Hughes..............	500	38
Webster do	Do do	Dempsey & Wicks...........	700	45
do	Do do	C. Shippen................	800	48
Horse Creek do	Do do	Bell & Davison............	500	38
		Tons............	84,885	5,063

From the following thirty-two Rolling Mills:

Names of Works.	Location and Proprietors.		Bar Iron.	Boiler Plate.	Sheet Iron.	Nails.	No. of hands employed.
Rolling Mill,	Pittsburg,	H. S. Spang & Co......	900	150	150	800	100
Do do	Do	Shoenberger & Co......	3,000				150
Do do	Do	Lyon, Shorb & Co......	2,000	250	250	500	150
Do do	Do	Bissell & Co...........	2,200			1,000	210
Do do	Do	Miltenberger...........	1,500				80
Do do	Do	Laurentz & Co..........	2,000				100
Do do	Do	Kings, Higbee & Co....	500			1,000	80
Do do	Do	Smith, Royer & Co.....	500			1,000	80
W. Brandywine do	Chester Co.	....		400			11
Caln do do	Do	....			200		12
Triadelphia do do	Do	....		400			12
Hibernia do do	Do	....		400			10
Brandywine do do	Do	....		400			11
Rokeby do do	Do	....		400			11
Lowell do do	Do	....	300		200	60	12
Bellefonte do do	Centre	Valentines & Thomas...	900				12
Howard do do	Do	Valentines, Harris & Co.	900				12
Milesburg do do	Do	James Irvin & Co......	900				12
Eagle do do	Do	R. Curtin & Sons......	900				12
Fairview do do	Cumb'd	A. O. Heister..........	700			300	35
Duncannon do do	Perry	W. L. Fisher..........	1,100			1,000	180
Montalto do do	Franklin	S. & H. Hughes.........	500			100	25
Conshohocken do do	Mont'y	J. Wood & Son.........	400		200		30
Norristown do do	Do	Reeves & Whitaker....				1,000	50
Reading do do	Berks	Keim, Whitaker & Co..	1,400			200	90
Phenixville Nail Factory.	Chester	Reeves & Whitaker....				1,300	52
Mason's do do	Do	R. W. Mason & Co				1,000	42
Lowell do do	Do	....				60	16
Brandywine do do	Do	....				100	6
Vartic Rolling Mill	Lancaster	Coleman's Estate.......	200		200	600	40

From the following fifty-four forges:

Names of Works.		Locations and Proprietors.		Bar Iron.	Boiler Plate.	No of hands employed.
Bedford	Forges	Bedford,	S. King & Co	307	140	40
Hopewell	do	Do	D. Loy & Co	200	150	30
Do	do	Do	Milliken & Benedict	200	100	25
Maria, 3	do	Do	Shoenberger & Co	2,081		107
Martha	do	Do	Do do	922		55
Dowell	do	Berks,	J. Sidel	300		25
Union	do	Do	George Regan		40	8
Rockland	do	Do	A. U. Snyder		100	20
Gibraltar, 3	do	Do	S. Seyfort	500	140	58
North Kill	do	Do	Joseph Seyfort	450		40
Coventry	do	Chester,		225		14
Springton	do	Do		325		15
Hibernia	do	Do		300		17
Mary Ann	do	Do			200	17
Pleasant Garden	do	Do			200	16
Bellefonte	do	Centre,	Valentines & Thomas	900		45
Howard	do	Do	Valentines, Harris & Co	900		45
Milesburg	do	Do	James Irvin & Co	800		45
Eagle	do	Do	R. Curtin & Sons	700		35
Washington	do	Clinton,	Irvin, Pyle & Co	300	100	40
Calawissa	do	Columbia,			150	15
Berwick	do	Do			200	20
Liberty	do	Cumbl'd,	H. G Moser & Co	325		25
Laurel	do	Do		250	200	40
Valley	do	Franklin,			60	20
London	do	Do			60	20
Mount Pleasant	do	Do	Dunn & Bard	60	120	18
Montalto	do	Do	S. & H. Hughes		500	40
Caledonia	do	Do	S. D. Paxton & Co.	35	195	23
Barree	do	Hunt'don,	S. M. Green & Co	900		60
Franklin	do	Do	S. Royer	450		25
Etna	do	Do	H. S. Spang	800		60
Antes	do	Do	Graham & McCamant	400		30
Juniata	do	Do		1,225		58
Speedwell	do	Lancaster,	J. Reynolds		250	30
White Rock	do	Do	J. Alexander		200	20
Vartic, 3	do	Do	Coleman's Estate	1,000		65
Union	do	Lebanon,	J. B. Weidman		200	25
Monroe	do	Do	J. B. Seidel	200		25
Freedom	do	Mifflin,	Rawle & Hall	650		33
Brookland	do	Do	M. Crisswell & Co	700		70
Rebecca	do	Do	Rogers & Co	325		17
Fio	do	Perry,		450	100	45
Berwick	do	Schuylkill,	D. Focht		100	25
Hecla	do	Do	P. & M. Jones		100	20
Castle Finn	do	York,	Coleman's Estate	125	250	45
Spring	do	Do	J. Harmer		250	50
Woodstock	do	Do	H. Y. Slaymaker & Co	420		45

These furnaces, it will be perceived from actual returns, had been, or were capable of producing 84,885 tons of pig metal; being an average of 1,074 tons to the furnace. But as this list embraced some large anthracite furnaces, and the best of all the charcoal, the make of the remainder was small in comparison, and we shall, therefore, estimate it at 500 tons to the furnace, (134 furnaces) which will give us 67,000 tons more, being the make of only 62 good furnaces, the names and returns of some of which we are able to furnish:

Names.	Locations.	Proprietors.	Tons.
1 Pennsylvania	Huntingdon County,	Lyon, Shorb & Co	1,50
2 Bald Eagle	Do do		
3 Blossburg	Tioga do		
4 Mauch Chunk	Lehigh do	Smith & Richards	600
5 Manda	Dauphin do	Robinson	1,980
6 Mill Hall	Chester do	Reynolds & Morris	
8 Martha	Centre do	Curtin	
9 Helen	Clarion do	Barber & Packer	
10 Sarah	Bedford do	Shoenberger	1,500
11 Sally Ann	Berks do	Hunter	
12 Lehigh	Lehigh do	S. Balliett & Co	833
13 East Penn	Carbon do	Do	800
14 Cumberland	Cumberland do	Miller	800
15 Green Lane	Montgomery do		
16 Monroe	Lebanon do	J. Seidell	
17 Mary	Franklin do	Boyce & Wharton	700
18 Maple	Butler do	G. Boward & Co	
19 Conowingo	Lancaster do	Hopkins	800
20 Reading	Berks do	Robinson	1,500
21 Carbon	Carbon do	S. Colwell	
22 Victoria	Dauphin do	H. M. Bazard	700
23 Emeline	Do do	Do	700
24 Root	Lancaster do	Brooks	
25 Big Pond	Cumberland do	Moore	600
26 Carlisle	Do do	M. Ege's Estate	700
27 Mary Ann	Do do	E. Jackson & Co	1,200
28 Augusta	Do do		
29 Earl Far	Berks do	Spang	540
30 Julianna	Centre do	John Adams	
31 Mary Ann	Berks do	H. Trexler	
32 Chester	Chester do	Pennypacker	

Making the entire product 151,885 tons of pig metal, provided all these furnaces had been in active operation; but the fires of most of them had been extinguished.

This being their make previous to 1842, it is fair to suppose that these same furnaces, from the large use of the hot blast, economy of fuel, iron blowing cylinders and *high prices*, have increased at least twenty-five per cent.; which will give us a make for those furnaces of 189,856 tons. Now, to this we must add the new works that have been erected since 1840, and those not reported from in 1842, and which are as follows:—

List of Charcoal Furnaces in Pennsylvania, built since 1840.

Built.	Erecting	Names of Works.	Proprietor's Names.	Location.	When Erected.	Product in 1845.	Capacity.
				County.		Tons.	Tons.
1		Gap	Shoenberger	Huntingdon	1845	1,500	1,500
1		Cambria	P. Shoenberger	Cambria	1844	1,500	1,500
1		Bloomfield	Do	Bedford	1846	1,050	1,050
1		Pike	Lansom, Duff & Orr	Clarion	1845		1,700
1		Anandale	Hunter & Sproul	Mercer	1843	600	600
1		Middlesex	Senate, Grey & Co	Do	1845		1,200
1		Clay	Hennon & Vincent	Do	"		1,200
1		Martha	Powel & Sons	Do	1844	800	800
1		Big Bend	McFarland & Fling	Do	1845		1,000
0	5	Erecting in Mercer	Names Unknown	Do	1845		4,000
1		Mahoning	Shunk & Calwell	Armstrong	"		1,000
1		Elk	Wm. B. Fitzhugh	Clarion	1843	800	1,000
1		Deer Creek	Kerr & Hasson	Do	1844	1,000	1,160
1		Buchanan	Plummer, Creasy & Co.	Do	1844	1,000	2,000
1		Mary Ann	John Black & Co.	Do	1845	800	1,000
1		Polk	C. Meyer	Do	1845		1,000
1		Slygo	Lyan, Shorb & Co.	Do	"		1,500
1		Washington	Henry Blackstone & Co.	Do	"		1,000
1		Tippecanoe	Black & Maxwell	Do	"		1.000
1		Cochego	John & Samuel Wilson	Do	"		1,000
1		Limestone	Jacob B. Lyan & Co	Do	"		1,000
1		Wild Cat	Flick & Lawson	Do	"		1,000
2		Callinsburg	Alexander & Co.	Do	"		1,000
1		Monroe	Cochran & Fulton	Do	"		1,000
1		Hemlock	Fitzu & McGuire	Do	"		2,000
1		Perry	Welsh & Co	Do	"		1,000
1		Licking Creek	Ohler, Liggworth & Co.	Do	"		1,200
1			John Nott	Bedford	"		750
1		Christiana	John Gamber	Dauphin	"		1,250
1		Red Bank	Reynolds & Ritchie	Armstrong	1843	1,600	2,000
1		Indiana	Elias Baker	Huntingdon	1843	1,400	1,750
1		Lemnos	Wm. Lane	Bedford	"	230	500
2		Elizabeth	J. M. Bell	Huntingdon	1842	800	1,200
1		Brady's Bend, (coke)	Great Western Company	Armstrong	1840–2–5	5,134	10,000
1		Mount Vena (Pero)	Leiss	Schuylkill	1841	600	1,000
1		Temperance	J. Ward & Co.	Mercer	"	500	1,200
1		Leesburg	Crawford & Co	Do		500	
1		Windsor	Darragh & Jones	Berks	"	500	900
1		Winchester	Davis & Beaty		1846		1,000
1		Franklin	Reynolds & Co.	Venango		1,000	1,000
1		Union	Williams & Looper	Do			1,000
1		Valley	Lee & Rhodes	Do			1,000
1		Texas	Wm. Porter	Do			1,000
1		Clay	Edward Evans	Do			1,000
1		Victory	A. & A. D. Bonnear	Do			1,000
1		Roymelton	A. W. Raymond	Do			1,000
1		Clintonville	W. Cross	Do			1,000
1		Slab	James Hughes	Do			1,000
1		Mill Creek	Charles Shippen	Do		1,200	1,200
1		Rockland	Spear	Do			1,000
1		Sandy Creek	McKee & Harris	Do			1,000
1		President	Klapp	Do			1,000
1		Bulyon	P. Rarradon & Co.	Do			1,000
1		Clinton	Moore & Seymour	Do			1,000
1			Bakers	Cambria		1,000	1,000
1			McKeenan & Co.	Do Lockport		1,000	1,000
	1		Livegood, Linton & Co.	Do Johnstown			1,000
	1		Huber, Linton & Co.	Somerset Do Milerun			1,000
1		Mill Creek	King, Shoenberger & Bell	Cambria		1,000	1,000
1		New Furnace	Do do	Somerset, on Paint Creek		1,000	1,000
1		Shade Furnace				1,000	1,000
2			Stewart, Riter & Co.	Cambria		2,000	2,000
4		New Furnaces in Mercer	county, not included above				4,400
65	7				Tons.	31,414	78,100
					Men.	1,687	4,230
					Horses.	740	2,200

These sixty-five charcoal and two coke furnaces will give us a *product* for this year of at least 75,200 tons.

List of new Anthracite Furnaces in Pennsylvania.

Built.	Erecting.	Names of Works.	Proprietors' Names.	Product in 1845. No of tons returned.	Capacity. Tons for 1846.
2	1	Lehigh Crane Iron Works...	Crane Iron Company....	7,100	13,000
3		Phœnix Works.............	Reeves, Buck & Co.....	1,210	9,000
1		Pioneer..................	G. G. Palmer	860	1,800
2		Glendon Iron Works........	Charles Jackson........	4,324	6.500
1		Henry Clay................	Eckert & Brother.......	960	4,000
	1	Montour Works.............	Montour Iron Co.......		5,000
1		Shawnee..................	Holmes, Myers & Co....	1,085	1,750
2		Bloomsburg................	Paxton, Fisher & Co....		9.000
1		Harrisburg................	David R. Porter........	1,505	3,500
1		Wm. Penn..................	Livingston & Lyman....	300	3,500
1		Mauch Chunk...............	Geateau & Co..........		1,000
1		Valley....................	Pomeroy & Harrison....		1,750
1		Spring Mill...............	Farr & Kunze..........	1,600	2,500
1		Conshohocton..............	Caldwell & Elliot......		3,500
1		Shamokin..................	Shamokin Iron Co......		2,500
1		Chickawolingo.............	E. Halderman & Co....		2,500
1		Halderman.................	P. Halderman's........		2,500
2		Elizabeth.................	F. Goodill	1,500	3,500
1	1	Saint Clare...............	Burd Patterson.........		3,500
1	1	Lackawanna................	Scranton...............	2,000	5.000
1		Sarah Ann.................	Porter & Stewart.......	400	2,000
1		Red Point.................	Samuel R. Wood.......		3,750
1		Birdsboro'................	E. & G. Brooks........		1,750
	1	Seyfert and McGuarn's......		9,000	3,500
	2		Bevan & Humphrey....		7,000
	1		Coleman		3,500
33					
5					
28	8	—36 furnaces.............	1845 22,844 tons,	22,844	107,200

New Anthracite Rolling Mills.—Annual Manufacture.

			Tons.
1.	Wilkesbarre—Thatcher T. Payne,	Rail-Road and Plate..................	6,000
2.	Montour—Murdock, Leavitt & Co.	Do Actual product........	10,000
		Do Plate................	1,000
3.	Reading—Sabbata & Co.....................	Axles...............	1,000
4.	Do. Jones & Co......................	Small Iron..........	
5.	Little Schuylkill..........................	Do.................	500
6.	Pottsgrove.....................	Rail-Road Iron......................	2,000
7.	Norristown.....................	Rail-Road Iron......................	3,000
8.	Schuylkill, Philad—Thomas & Co.............	Small Iron............	2,000
9.	Manayunk..................................	Plate.................	500
10.	Phoenixville....................	Rail-Road Iron......................	6,000
13.	Delaware, 3 near Philad....................	Plate	3,000
14.	Harrisburg...		1,500
	COKE.		
15.	Brady's Bend....................	Rail Road Iron, actual product....	5,000
	Great Western Co	Plate.................	1,000

The account for 1846 will therefore stand thus:

Charcoal, ...	206	173,369 T.	
Anthracite, ...	7	16,487 T.	
	213....	189,856 T.	
Furnaces up to 1842,	213	Anthracite, 16,487 T.	189,856 T.
New Charcoal since do,	67	....	75,200 T.
New Anthracite do,	36	....	103,000 T.
	316		368,056 T.

Increase on Old Furnaces, ...	37,971 T.
Do. do. New do., ...	178,200 T.
	216,171 T.

More than 100 per cent. since the bill of 1842. This prodigious increase of the business has, of course, called for a large investment and employment of capital, which, after much reflection and experience, we estimate at $47.00 per ton for every ton of charcoal pig metal manufactured; this would therefore give on 75,200 tons, $3,534,400; and for every ton of anthracite pig metal $25.00 per ton, $2,575,000—making the enormous sum of six millions one hundred and nine thousand and four hundred dollars invested in furnaces alone since 1842. The aggregate capital, therefore, would be calculated upon the same estimate:

			Capital.
Charcoal Furnaces previous to 1842,	173,369 T.	......	8,148,343
Anthracite Do. do., ...	16,487 T.	......	412,075
New, ...	75,200 T.	......	8,560,418
	103,000 T.	......	6,109,400
	368,056 T.		$14,669,818

This quantity 368.056 T. at $30 per ton, would be worth..	$11,040,000		
It is probable that one half of this metal is converted into bar, hoop, sheet, boiler iron, and nails, at a cost of at least $50 per ton more,............	9,201,400		
	$20,201,400	Capital for conversion, at $20 per ton,	3,680,460
The other half into castings at $20 per ton,............	3,680,560	Do. at $10	1,840,280
	23,921,960		20,190,658

And where does this enormous sum of money go, and how is it expended? All in labor and agricultural products—for of what materials is iron composed—coal, limestone, iron ores, sand, and fire-clay—almost worthless unless converted into iron. The number of men employed in producing the above iron, would be in the charcoal operations one man to every twenty tons, and in the anthracite one man to every twenty-four tons of pig metal. This includes all the miners of coal and limestone, wood-choppers, &c., &c. Upon this estimate there would be employed—charcoal 12,428, anthracite 4,978—17,406. Allowing a wife and four children as sustained by this labor, we have a population of 87,030. To which, if we add the labor employed in its conversion into bars, hoops, sheets, boiler plate, nails, castings, railway iron, &c., &c., which would more than double those *directly* dependent, we should have upon this supposition 174,060 men, women and children. But when we look still further at the labor created by this business in railways, canals, &c., who can estimate it—both of man and horse?

Has not this increase of business been sufficient to satisfy the most ardent mind, and to realise ten-fold the predictions of the friends of that bill? Indeed this increase is only the result of two years, for so great was the depression and prostration of all the industry of the country, that the trade did not revive until 1844. During 1843, it will be perceived from the prices which we have given of iron during that year, that it was at the *lowest* point—the bottom of the wheel—and that although each revolution after 1843 brought up the price, yet it was very slow and gradual, and we are not aware of any new erections until 1844. The price of English iron remaining during the year 1844 at £5, and railway iron at £4 10*s*. The most gratifying result in this increase of business, however, is the progress which we have made in the manufacture of railway iron, for it was asserted by even some of the friends of the tariff, that so high a degree of skill and invention was necessary to manufacture this iron, that we must continue our deplorable dependence upon England for it—that we had neither "the minds to devise or hands to execute any such work"—that any attempt to make it, in the present infancy of our manufactures, would be disastrous, unless aided by a further bounty from the government. But fortunately for us, this speedy production of it has settled this question, and shown that American energy and perseverance is equal to any work that can be accomplished by any other people in manufacturing pursuits. How supremely ridiculous to entertain the idea of an importation of materials for the construction of the roads of a country, and particularly such a country as ours, where these massive rails are to be stretched from one limit of the country to the other—East and West, North and South—in every direction, and wherever occasion may exist, and a dense and thriving population may demand passage or transportation.

It is not only gratifying that we have furnished this evidence of our skill and energy, but still more so that we have actually sold it at a *less price here* than it could be imported *free of duty*. When railway iron advanced in England to £15 10*s*., $77,50, the Mount Savage Iron Works in Maryland were at this time furnishing it at fifty-nine dollars per ton, delivered at Baltimore to the Fall River Company, in Massachusetts. The English iron, with a twenty per cent. duty, would have cost them at that time $97,50 per ton. We are now manufacturing, as it appears from the returns herewith made, of railway iron, in this state alone, 15,000 tons per annum; and so strong is the disposition to embark capital largely in this manufacture, that we entertain no doubt that the supply of railway iron from our own establishments in 1847, *will be equal* *to the wants of the country*, and this will all have been accomplished in about *three years;* and we challenge the world for a like result. This iron will be manufactured entirely from our mineral coal metal, and thus open, for works of that description, an endless field—leaving to the charcoal works the manufacture of the smaller sizes of iron, and all that is requisite for the finer purposes of cutlery, &c. We are glad to find in the mills that are now being erected, that it is the intention of the proprietors to confine their manufacture exclusively to railway iron, which will soon bring it to the highest perfection, and reduce its cost to the lowest figure. It has been this same system under high duties that perfected our manufacture of *nails*, which, when the duty was five cents per pound, were selling at 3½ to 4 cents, notwithstanding Mr. McDuffie's theory to the contrary—that the *duty* was always added to the cost of manufacture. The perfection of this manufacture has been so complete as to defy the competition of the world, and its magnitude is almost beyond belief. As we have never yet seen in print a list of the nail works, and their product, we furnish the following, under the hope that it may lead some person of leisure to perfect it.

State.	Place.	Names.	Machines	Proprietors.	Kegs.
Maine	Saco				15,000
Massachusetts.	Dover				10,000
	Boston	Boston Iron Co		Horace Gray, (burnt)	40,000
		Weith Iron Co			10,000
	Weymouth	W. Iron Co		Lazell, Parkins & Co	35,000
	Bridgewater			Do do do	15,000
	Fall River	F. R. Iron Works		Borden Manager	60,000
	Taunton	Old Colony		Crooker & Brother	40,000
	Plymouth			Russell	20,000
	Braintree			Randall & Howard	20,000
	Wareham	Agawam Nail Co	29	S. T. Tisdale & Co	35,000
	Do	Washington		Haywood and others	30,000
	Do	Tihanet		Parker	10,000
				Toby	10,000
Connecticut	Norwich				8,000
New York	Troy	Albany Iron and Nail Works	34	E. Corning & Co	20,000
	Do	Troy Iron and Nail Works	28	H. Burden & Co	12,000
		Peru Iron Co		Saltus & Co	20,000
		Sable Iron Works		Royers & Co	30,000
		Keesville Manu. Co		Hurlbut	10,000
		Eagle Nail Co		Kingsland	15,000
	Clintonville		25		20,000
	Forks		28		20.000
New-Jersey	Bridgton	Cumberland	47	Reeves, Buck & Co	40,000
Pennsylvania	Norristown	Norristown Works	29	Reeves, Buck & Co	25,000
	Phœnixville	Phœnix Works	38	do do	35,000
	Phœnixville	Sansinak	20	Jaudons & Mason	18,000
	Reading	Reading Iron Works	24	Seifert, M'Manus& Co	20,000
	Port. Iron works	Portagelo		McMarnara & Royer	14,000
	Easton		12	Rodenbaugh Stew'rt& Co	10,000
	New-Castle		12	Crawford & Co	8.000
	Farrandsville	Franklin	20	Lyman & Co	10,000
	Bellefonte		18	3 small works	6,000
	Colebrookdale	Colebrook			8,000
		Mount Alto	12	H. Hughes	6,000
	Harrisburg	Duncannan	28	Morgan & Fisher	25,000
	Coutesville		6	Buckley & Co	3,000
	Delaware Co		8	Edwards	4,000
	Brownsville				20,000

Iron and Coal Trade—Continued.

State.	Place.	Names.	Mach'is	Proprietors.	Kegs.
Pennsylvania..	Lancaster.....	Colemanville.........	—	E. T. Coleman..........	6,000
	Wilksbarre....		24		12,000
	Milesburg.....	Eagle:................		C. & J. Curtain..........	1,000
	Pittsburg......	Allegheny Iron Works	14	Russell Sample & Co....	14,000
		Etna.................		Sproug & Son...........	16,000
			30	J. Shoenberger..........	40,000
			27	King & Higby...........	20,000
			17	Miller & Brown.........	12,000
			14	Smith, Rogers & Co.....	10,000
		Kensington Works....	20	Freeman, Miller & Co...	16,000
		Birmingham..........	4	Wood, M'Knight & Co..	2,000
		Sligo Works.........	10	Lyons, Short & Co......	8,000
			20	Cuddy & Co............	16,000
				Bissell & Co............	20,000
				Smith, Boyer & Co......	20,000
	Franklin Co....			Hughes.................	2,000
Maryland.....	Ellicottsville...	Avalon..............	24	Ellicotts................	28,000
	Gunpowder....		19	Pattersons..............	5,000
		Ateatem.............	13	J. M'Brian	2,000
	Elkton........			Whittaker, Garret & Co.	15,000
Virginia......	Richmond.....	Belle Isle............	22	J. R. Triplett & Son.....	25,000
South Carolina				Nesbit, 2 factories.......	
Ohio.........	Cincinnati.....				
				Kegs..............	1,062,000

P. S. This statement is made out from the quantities known to have come into market in certain years with some exceptions, and may be considered at least 25 per cent. less on the average than was made from the above works. When fully employed, the yearly product may be taken fairly at 1,000 kegs for each machine per annum. In the West, and at some of the interior factories, where the nails run fewer to the pound than at the North, the average would be nearer 1,100 kegs each machine. The quantities set down above, therefore, are about 25 to 30 per cent. less than the capacity of the factories. A number of works have been omitted for want of information. There are several on the Ohio River, about which nothing accurate is known. The make of last year (1845) is believed by well-informed dealers in New-York to have been over 1,500,000.

But, to return to railway iron, let us ask our opponents, and particularly the Honorable Chairman of the Committee of the Senate, who in the session of 1843–44 reported a bill to remit the duties upon railway iron, what would now have been the price of this iron in England if the bill of 1842 had not passed, and brought into existence our splendid establishments, and we had been dependent, as we should have been, upon England for our entire supply. But it may be said that our demand is so trifling, that it would not have advanced prices; but let us hear the English Mining and Railroad Journal upon this subject—a work of the highest authority in England. They say, in June, 1843,—"That the demand for railroad iron in this country (England) is comparatively trifling, while America, which in 1839 took nearly one-third of our exports, now, from the uncertain state of the tariff, and *loss* of *credit*, does but little to assist us, and this is the only foreign country to which we can look as being of sufficient weight to have any *effect* upon our Home Market." But if the tariff of 1842 had not passed, *three-fourths* of our entire consumption of 600,000 tons would have been added to their present demand, and who could even imagine its *effect* upon English prices? For it will be perceived by an attentive examination of English statistics, from that time to this, notwithstanding their high prices, more than double those of 1843 and 1844, that they have increased their manufacture only about 500,000 tons. In 1840 they manufactured 1,500,000 tons, and the highest estimate of 1846 is 2,000,000 tons—less than 100,000 tons per annum; and one half of this increase is in Scotland, which latter iron is entirely unfit for malleable bar iron or railway iron, and is used exclusively for founderies.

From our experience and results in this trade, can any man doubt that to reduce the duties to thirty per cent. *ad valorem*, would destroy the entire business? For the effect of a low rate of duty upon iron has always been, that, whenever the manufacturing industry of England becomes depressed, their surplus stock must be thrown upon us *at less* than the cost of production, and thus stop our furnaces and mills, throw our labor out of employment, and degrade it to the condition of foreign labor; and this fluctuation of prices is very sudden, and runs to great extremes. Competition at home operates very differently, even when stimulated to the highest extent—for it works gradually, and produces no derangement of the currency; our specie is retained amongst ourselves, and only changes hands, and does not take from the consumer all ability to purchase or to pay; and at no period in the history of the country is this surplus product to be more dreaded than at the *present*, for the high prices, both in this country and England, has stimulated the production to an enormous extent, and reduced prices must be the consequence before six months have elapsed. Stocks are now accumulating largely in Scotland; and the Mining Journal of January 30th, 1846, says,—"That it will be remembered that in 1842 (a year memorable to them) the amount of pig metal, exported from *Glasgow* alone, was 70,000 tons, and it is a *painful* fact, that since 1842 the exportation of pig iron has all but ceased. Under these circumstances we are at a loss to conceive how our surplus iron is to be disposed of;"—and what will be the effect of this overtrading and surplus stock, if it can be exported here under a thirty per cent. *ad valorem* duty?—which is no duty whatever—for at the time it is most needed it is *lowest*. Specific duties are the only check which we have upon fraud and perjury. Abandon them, and you have effectually prostrated the trade, and placed us entirely in the hands of unscrupulous foreigners. But let us see how this *ad valorem* duty will work. In June, 1824, bar iron in England was £7. per ton, and in January, 1825, the price was £14. per ton, and it fell the same year to £10. In 1826 and 1827, the highest quotation was £9, while in 1832 it fell to £4.15. In June, 1844, the price was £6. —in April £9.15—July £7.15, and in October £8.15—December £10. Thus it will be seen that in 1832, thirty per cent. duty would have produced $6.84 per ton, while in December, 1844, it would have been $14.40, and in January, 1824, $20.16.

The production of iron depending essentially upon the use of coal for smelting and elaborating it, renders "that good gift of nature" scarcely less important than iron, and hence closely connected with a proper consideration of the latter.

In relation to the coal trade, we are happy to avail ourselves, to some extent, of statistics recently published in the Miner's Journal of Pottsville, and which may be relied upon. That trade, it appears, suffered earlier than the iron trade, by the reduction of duties in 1838 and 1839, and was deeply affected at a time when the duty on foreign coal was much higher than that proposed by the bill now reported to Congress.

In 1838 the quantity of anthracite coal sent to market from all the regions of the state, was,—

	Tons.	Price at Phila.	Labor.	Foreign Coal Imported.
	723,836	....	....	129,083 T.
1839	817,659	....	....	181,551 T.
1840	865,414	$5.50	$5 to 6.00 per week	162,067 T.
1841	956,566	5.00	....	155,394 T.
1842	1,108,001	4.25	....	141,521 T.
1843	1,263,539	3.50	....	41,163 T.
1844	1,631,669	3.37	$8 to 10 per week	87,073 T.
1845	2,021,674	3.50		85,776 T.

With this vast increase of the business, and advance of the wages of labor, (notwithstanding the opinion of the Honorable Secretary of the Treasury to the contrary) being from 20 to 40 per cent.;—yet it will be perceived that coal had been yearly reduced in price from 1842; and this arose from the confidence inspired by the bill of that year—attracting capital largely to the trade, by which all the improvements of the age were introduced, labor-saving machines, &c., and by perfecting all the facilities of transportation, which latter will now compare with that of any other country in the world. But it may be asked, what can affect this trade? We answer, *Mines*—that challenge the competition of the world, both in abundance and quality—the Nova Scotia and New-Brunswick coal fields, which, unlike ours, are accessible by water, and the coal of which may be transported at a small cost to every part of our Atlantic coast. Our coal fields, although unsurpassed in richness and extent, are in the interior of the country; and although capital and enterprise has furnished us, as we have said, every facility of transportation to bring these vast and inexhaustible resources to our Atlantic border, yet the *transportation alone* is equal to the cost of the Nova Scotia coal, $1.50 per ton, delivered into the vessel—to which, if the duty of thirty per cent. be added, we have $1.95 as the cost—$1.55 less than the anthracite can be sold and delivered, at ship-board in Philadelphia; and we need not ask whether this would not prove ruinous to the trade, destructive to the wages of labor, and confer only a temporary advantage on the consumer. But let us see the investments in this trade, and whether it is worth preserving.

"This table," says the Miners' Journal, "was prepared with great care while Congress was deliberating upon the present Tariff bill, and showed the state of the trade previous to the passage of that bill. At that time the investment of capital in the trade of Schuylkill county, was estimated to be $17,526,000—it now reaches $26,856,000; showing an increase of *more than one half* within four years. It will also be observed by the statistics below, that the consumption of produce and merchandize has also nearly doubled within the same period.

But the most important bearing of the tariff of 1842 on the coal trade of this county is yet to be noticed.

In 1837, the quantity of coal sent to market from Schuylkill county, was	tons	540,000
In 1842 the trade had increased to only		572,000
Increase in a period of six years, only *thirty-two thousand tons.*		
In 1845, the quantity sent to market from this county reached	tons	1,132,000
In 1842,		572,000
Increase in only *three years,*	tons	560,000

It having nearly doubled within a period of three years, under the protective policy of the country; while, under the free trade, or low duty system, which existed from* 1838 *to* 1843,* *a period of six years, the increase in the trade was only thirty-two thousand tons.

Statistics of the Coal Trade of Schuylkill County.

Capital invested in 81 miles of Incorporated Railroads,	$1,000,000
do. do. 50 do. of Individual do.	150,000
do. do. 50 do. under ground do.	60,000
1500 Railroad Cars,	150,000
2400 Drift Cars,	96,000
34 Collieries below water level, with Steam Engines, Pumps, &c.,	850,000
100 Collieries above water level,	500,000
Landings,	200,000
Boats and Boat Horses,	500,000
Working Capital,	300,000
Schuylkill Canal,	5,000,000
Reading Railroad, Cars, Engines, &c.,	10,250,000
Towns in the Coal Region,	3,000,000
Danville and Pottsville Railroad,	800,000
80,000 Acres of Coal Land at $50 per acre,	4,000,000
	$26,856,000
Estimated investment for same items in 1842,	17,526,000
Increase in four years with protection,	$9,330,000

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* Although the present Tariff bill was passed, and took effect on the first of July, 1842, it did not create an increased demand for coal until 1843; though its effect on the trade was instantaneous, in the confidence it imparted to future operations.

Tons of Coal sent to market in 1845,	**1,131,724**
Consumed in the region, about	75,000
Total tons,	1,206,724
Sent in 1841,	620,345
Increase—almost doubled in four years,	586,379

The population of the coal region of Schuylkill County is now almost 25,000. There are also about 2,000 horses used in the trade in the region.

Agricultural Products Consumed in the Coal Region in 1845.

Wheat and Flour,	$187,000
Corn, Rye, and Buckwheat,	180,000
Oats,	70,000
Hay,	80,000
Straw,	6,000
Beef and Pork,	260,000
Potatoes,	30,000
Poultry,	25,000
Butter,	23,000
Lard,	7,000
Milk,	35,000
Eggs,	8,000
Vegetables, Apples, Peaches, Turnips, Onions, &c.,	50,000
	$961,000
Consumption in 1841,	588,000
Increase in 4 years,	$373,000

Merchandize consumed in 1845.

Groceries,	$750,000
Dry Goods—foreign and domestic,	625,000
Boots and Shoes,	100,000
Drugs, Glass and Dye Stuffs, &c.,	40,000
Hats and Caps,	40,000
Saddlery,	15,000
Nails and Spikes,	20,000
Bar, Pig and Boiler Iron,	75,000
Railroad Iron,	50,000
Stone and Hollow ware,	10,000
Confectionery,	15,000
Jewelry,	8,000
Books, Stationery and Paper,	10,000
	$1,758,000
Consumption in 1841,	918,000
Increase in 4 years,	$840,000

The quantity of oil included in groceries is a pretty considerable item. It is estimated that the quantity consumed in the region last year was worth at least *one hundred and sixty thousand dollars.*

Can any mind contemplate the results of this vast industry—the labor employed—the capital expended—the railroads and canals which it sustains—the water powers and privileges which it has improved—the steam engines which it has put into motion—the furnaces, rolling mills, collieries, and woollen establishments, which it has built up—the towns and villages which it has created—and be disposed to annihilate these great branches of national industry? If so, what will the laborers of the country say, for both iron and coal are the embodiment of labor? both are of little value, as we have before remarked, in the ground, but so necessary to the wants of civilized life as to have made England the mistress of the world, and all that world her debtors. They call more largely, and are more dependent, upon the other branches of industry for their support, than any other class of industrial pursuits. They have also arisen and flourished most where nature seemed to have doomed the country to everlasting sterility, and this fact brought from the good and great Wilberforce, in defending the iron interest in Parliament in 1797, the remark,—"That he had never felt a more sensible pleasure in his life than when, after the lapse of a few years, he had returned to a spot once rugged and barren, but then covered by the fruits of human industry, and gladdened by the face of man, in consequence of the introduction of this manufacture." Coal effects much, but nothing in comparison with iron. It is this manufacture that makes the wilderness blossom like the rose, and covers the barren hills not only with flowers, but also with flourishing villages. To illustrate this, we shall take the Schuylkill Coal Field, upon which there has been expended in railways, canals, &c., (all necessary for the iron business,) upwards of $26,000,000, to bring to market 1,300,000 tons of coal, which is worth at Pottsville $2 per ton, or $2,600,000. The labor to mine and deliver this coal does not exceed 5,000 men. Now the single iron establishment of a private individual in England, Mr. Crawshay, employs, 6,000 men, and manufactures upwards of 1,500 tons of bar and railway iron per week; estimating this iron at the present prices of £10 or $50 (in England) per ton, we have a production or export trade of $3,750,000—exceeding that of the entire coal trade by one million one hundred and fifty thousand dollars in money, and 1,000 more in laborers; and this establishment would eat up, annually, 375,000 tons of coal, 262,500 tons of ore, and 75,000 tons of limestone, and the English coal field is dotted over with such establishments; and all this population of laborers are consumers; and what must be the effect of these two trades upon agriculture, that *main* spring of national prosperity? Is it not too clear to admit of argument,—"That if the American farmer give a product upon which he has employed a certain amount of labor and capital to an American manufacturer in exchange for an American product, which has employed another equal amount of American labor and capital, the operation puts in motion *twice* as much *American* labor and capital as if he gave the same product to a foreign manufacturer, in exchange for a foreign product, which has employed an equal amount of foreign labor and capital?" This being admitted, and being equally true, that *labor* is the wealth of a state and the source of all prosperity, and that the laborers of manufactures must be entirely consumers and not producers, is not the agriculturist directly benefited by this increase of the labor of the country, and just in proportion to the demand for it must the wages of labor be advanced, and the price of agricultural products be enhanced in value? Depress that labor and your consumption ceases, and it then matters not at what price you can buy. The great secret of prosperity is, that all classes of labor should be employed, and this can only be done by securing to ourselves our *Home Market*—this being protected from all ruinous foreign competition, "every citizen would be left at liberty to select that pursuit which he believed would most contribute to his happiness, and every branch of industry would naturally spring up upon the soil best adapted to it;" and, as we have a world within ourselves, and that very diversity of wants and productions which were intended by the God of nature to unite and bind us together, can we have any apprehensions that all the three great sources of national industry would not prosper—agriculture, commerce and manufactures? With regard to commerce we have only to look to our coasting trade, and compare it with the foreign. It is such a trade as no nation ever before enjoyed—the voyage of one of our rivers being almost equal to a trip across the Atlantic.

The Secretary of the Treasury tells us all this in his famous Texas letter,—"That the foreign consumption of our products is a mere drop in the bucket in comparison with that of the home market—that the aggregate production of the United States by the census of 1840 is, in round numbers, $1,000,000,000. Our exports of domestic products, by the Treasury Report of 1840, amount to 103,533,896, deducting which from our whole product by the census of 1840, $959,600,845, would leave $856,066,949 of our products consumed in that year, by our population of 17 millions, and the consumption of our domestic products by the population of foreign nations only amounts to $103,533,896;" and of this, eighty per cent. of the whole consisted of cotton, tobacco, and rice. But in his recent Report, this *far-reaching* statesman has repudiated this doctrine, and now says, that our agriculture must seek a foreign demand, and that our *Home* market is totally inadequate for the supply of even two states; and where is this market to be found? In *England?*—by the repeal of the corn laws. But is it not manifest to the plainest intellect, that the same countries that now supply more than nine-tenths of the wheat would continue to do the same, under a less restricted system? The State of Massachusetts alone, took last year one million of barrels of flour more than the whole export trade of that article from the United States to foreign countries. But it must be recollected that the Secretary does not represent the agricultural interest, strictly speaking, and has no sympathy with it or the labor of the country. He hails from the South. The wages of labor are of little consequence to him, and hence he could not *even* discover that they had advanced since 1842. It is clearly the interest of the cotton and rice planters, that agriculture should be depressed to the *lowest point*, for having a foreign demand for all they produce, they must be benefited by the *low prices* of agriculture. But is it not unreasonable that the North and great West should be sacrificed to those interests, particularly when they have a demand under any circumstances for their cotton, and enjoy now eighty per cent. of the *whole exports*, whilst their population is not one-half of that of the free states?

If the iron master and coal operator is compelled to manufacture iron in competition with England, the wages of labor must be reduced accordingly, " for the only Free Trade sought by England is the free introduction into all the markets of her manufactures, whereby her operators, by their superiority in the art, and *low prices* of wages, will be able to effect the total destruction of all competition." If this is accomplished, the manufacturing industry of three millions in this country must become producers; and what effect will this have upon agriculture? It cannot be better illustrated than by one year's effect of the compromise bill upon the *sugar interest*, by which one hundred and fifty-six sugar estates were turned into rice and cotton fields.

But as the Secretary addresses him so largely to the poor man, and feels so anxious to attract him to agriculture, and promises him the *English market* for the conversion of his grain into gold untold, this subject is worthy of some further consideration; and we are most happy to give him the experience of a country which has carried out his views to the letter, and is now reaping the bitter fruits, husks instead of golden apples; it is unhappy Ireland. England, (says Dr. Kane, on the industrial resources of Ireland, a work of the highest authority and talent,) has always said to Ireland—" You are an agricultural population—we a manufacturing people: your soil and climate fit you for producing corn and cattle, whilst our mines of coal and iron, the sources of our machine power, make us the work-shop of the world. The position of the two islands is therefore correlative, and naturally advantageous—we send you clothing, and you send us food; from our crowded factories we give you all the products of complex manufacture, and in return we take your corn and cattle, the raw productions of the soil;" and what has been the effect of this reciprocal trade? Let the same writer answer—" That human labor can be obtained in this country (Ireland) on lower terms than almost any other in Europe. A population which is not, as in her sister kingdom, drafted off to manufacturing employments, must, in order to live, accept of any terms of remuneration which they can get, in exchange for labor. It is thus that 8d. and 10d. per day is found to be the usual rate of wages at a distance from the large towns; and that *even upon such terms*, thousands of men remain unemployed. If money be made in Ireland, it is withdrawn from trade and land is bought, yielding only a small return—but with one advantage, of not requiring intense exertion or intelligence, and free from risk; but not so in England, which, by her other *industrial pursuits*, has produced the difference between the countries, and left many of our fields in barrenness, our mines unsought, and our power of motion unapplied. So far from there being aught antagonistic between agriculture and manufacture, the former can only be carried on with its best effect where the industrial arts are in a flourishing condition. The farmer requires for his clothing the produce of various manufactures, and for his protection a house made comfortable by the labors of various artizans; his plough, his machines for winnowing and thrashing, have been invented for him by ingenious machinists. On the other hand, the manufacturer must be fed; the produce of the farm finds its greatest and readiest sale in the neighboring manufacturing town. The risk of transport to a distance, of sales to strangers, of charge of markets, are all avoided, where domestic industry provides for the farmer purchasers in his own country. No population, that is exclusively devoted to one or the other mode of existence, can have a healthy organization, or be considered as in a natural state."

Can more positive authority and *experience* be produced upon any subject than this, for Ireland is a country peculiarly adapted to agriculture, from its extraordinary fertility of soil? The population of that country, by the census returns of 1841, was—

5,406,746	employed in agriculture,..	66	per cent.
1,953,688	in trade and manufactures,	24	"
813,535	otherwise, ...	9	"

Showing that from the cultivation of the soil more than two-thirds of the entire population are supported, and how awful their condition! No—if the Secretary sought the prosperity of the West, he would earnestly entreat them to encourage the establishment of manufactures amongst them, and induce the foreign artizans, laborers, spinners, and tradesmen, to emigrate, as they are daily doing, to our country, and settle in our rich prairies; not to extend agriculture and become producers, but to erect furnaces and factories whose operatives would eat and consume the produce that is now raised; for the population employed in agriculture, commerce, and planting, is sufficiently large to satisfy the most ardent lover of those interests; being, according to the Honorable Secretary's notions, "our entire population of twenty millions of people—save 400,000." If this were true, it is time to be aroused from our lethargy, and foster and encourage a branch of business that will secure us *consumption.* For it is only, as we have said, when the different industrial classes of a nation purchase from *each other*, that there can be prosperity. When either deserts the *home market*, and has recourse to a foreign one, it immediately depresses the labor; and does not every farmer see this in his daily experience, that in purchasing foreign manufactures, he is consuming English grain? that the money which he pays for their cloth, iron, and hardware, they pay again to the English or *foreign* farmer? During the years 1844 and '45, the importation of iron and steel and hardware each year has exceeded eight millions of dollars per annum, and consequently three-fourths of this enormous sum was paid for *English grain* converted into those articles.

But when this same farmer sees a furnace and rolling-mill erected in his neighborhood, what is the result? Do not the laborers of that establishment want his wheat, his rye, his corn, his beef, his pork, his milk, his butter, his eggs, his vegetables, his *wood*, his ore, his limestone? and do they not give him, hundreds of miles in the interior, a better market than the Atlantic border, and thus save to him the heavy charge of transportation to the sea-board?

But it is said by the Honorable Secretary of the Treasury, that the *profits* of manufacturers are too great—much more so than that of any of the other branches of national industry. If so, why is it that agriculture and planting have attracted so largely of our population? and that our emigration still continues rolling on towards the western ocean, and settling our prairies? We think that it will be found that few fortunes have been realised in manufactures, and that the revulsions of trade have brought down their gains to that of the farmer and planter; and we now assert, after a long and practical experience in the iron trade, that if a true account could be obtained from all the establishments of this state, for the last twenty years, their profits would not have paid six per cent. upon the capital invested, after deducting the depreciation of the estate. It is true, however, that this has arisen principally from the frequent and sudden changes in the legislation of the country — one year enacting laws to encourage the iron manufacturer to embark in the business, and in the next, by adverse legislation, destroying the value of that investment; and this in relation to an article, the manifold uses of which can scarcely be conceived by the human mind, and which contributes more than all the other metals put together to the happiness and comfort of the human family, and for this reason the God of nature has given it in such abundance, and made it available at so small an expense. Every day is extending its use, in building boats, houses, roads, bridges, and collieries, and calling for the highest efforts of human skill, and the employment of the largest amount of *labor*. This is beautifully illustrated by a recent estimate of the various processes it passes through, and the value it acquires from labor and mechanical skill. " The quantity of *cast iron* worth £1 sterling, becomes worth the following sums:

When converted into ordinary machinery,	£4.00
Large ornamental work,	45.00
Buckles—Berlin work,	660.00
Neck chains,	1386.00
Shirt buttons,	5896.00

The quantity of bar iron worth £1 sterling becomes, when formed into

Horse shoes work,	£2.10
Knives, (table,)	36.00
Needles,	71.00
Penknife blades,	657.00
Polished buttons and buckles,	897.00
Balance springs of watches,	50,000.00

And yet it is this business which we are obliged to defend at every step, against the wild legislation of almost every Congress; and that, too, when our progress has surpassed that of any other country upon the face of the globe. We are *now second* upon the list of nations in the manufacture of iron, and are, from the best estimates we can make, manufacturing about 800,000 tons of iron in the United States—being alongside of the " Industrial Sovereign of the Earth"—*England;* with her we never can compete (so long as her institutions deny to the laborer a participation in the common comforts of life) without *duties*, for centuries to come. She has perfected every branch of manufacture, and possesses all the requisite skill; her machinery is all in operation, and her capital unlimited, at the lowest rates. She is a sea-girt island, and exports her products, with the winds of Heaven, to every quarter of the globe. We surpass her only in the *energies of our people,* who aspire to every thing that is noble and great in all the pursuits of active life. Our natural associations and education inspire such feelings: our noble rivers and lakes—our vast forests—our lofty chains of mountains—all tell us that we have a great work as a nation to accomplish, in developing them and unfolding their treasures; and we feel equal to the *task,* if every thing that is *noble and great* in our nature is not broken down by a competition with the degraded labor of foreign countries.

In conclusion, your committee regrets deeply that their limited time would not permit them to give to the subjects referred to them that consideration which they so eminently deserved, nor to present such precise and statistical information as the magnitude and importance of these great branches of domestic industry demanded; but from the defective nature of their estimates, they are not sorry to avail themselves of this occasion to earnestly press upon this Institution the necessity of preserving their organization, and using every effort to ascertain correctly the statistics in relation to these sources of our national industry. The government, it is manifest, will do nothing towards organizing a bureau to collect facts and that description of information upon which sound legislation can only be based. It must therefore be procured by the untiring industry of a few individuals, inspiring each other with the proper zeal and persevering in their laudable efforts. We fear that the make of iron has been over-estimated by relying upon official documents; but, if so, it is the duty of this Institution to have it corrected by the earliest day, and to furnish information from which correct conclusions may be drawn; all of which is respectfully submitted.

THOMAS CHAMBERS, }
G. N. ECKERT, } *Committee.*
SAMUEL J. REEVES, }

GREAT NATIONAL FAIR.

We have now the pleasure of performing the promise made in our last number, of presenting the official catalogue of the Washington Fair, furnished us by the managers; and that our readers may have an opportunity of viewing, in a condensed form, the kind and quality of articles furnished by each state, we annex a list of them arranged in states; the classification of the catalogue referring only to the nature and kind of the several articles, and not, therefore, showing at one view, how far the several states were represented.

The object we have in making this classification is to show, at one view, not only the number of states that are engaged in manufactures and were represented at the fair, but further to make manifest the advances made and making in industry in the middle and southern states.

While stating this, we wish also to impress upon our readers the fact, that this fair was got up very suddenly, and that it was by no means so generally understood to be one at which a very numerous and large collection was desirable. Hence, several states were not so fully represented as they could readily have been, had the fair been generally and properly appreciated. We can speak with certainty of the states of

New-York and Connecticut in this particular. The facts, as we understand them, are these: that a room in the capitol had been taken possession of by some one or more British manufacturers, and samples exhibited to endeavor to show the superior cheapness and finish of British goods, and to influence members of Congress against protection to our skill and industry. We know not by whose permission or authority this room was so occupied, but certainly it speaks but little for their patriotism, be they whom they may. It is the first time we have ever heard of such a thing in any country, and we venture the assertion, that it would not have been permitted in any part of Europe—but it was permitted at Washington; and we are assured that *this*, it was, which excited the real friends of their country and its institutions, to wish to see some samples of the great bulk of American manufactures which, to an almost incalculable amount, are circulating throughout the Union, sustaining not only the one million or more persons who are constantly engaged in their fabrication, but giving life, animation and vigor to an immense internal trade, more than double in amount than all the foreign trade to every country on the globe, which our large commercial marine sustains, of which we are justly proud, and which will be much diminished if our home industry shall be prostrated.

It was to show to members of Congress and others, some of the products—not of British labor, sustained by British agriculture, but of the labor of the descendants of those who wrested from Great Britain American independence, and who are determined to maintain it. Not a mere political independence, but a solid substantial independence, founded upon a supply of our own wants; and nobly did they accomplish what they were so suddenly called upon to perform. From the shortness of the notice, and a belief that the fair would not be a general one, Connecticut and New-York, as we have stated, were not represented as they will be on any other similar occasion which may hereafter occur; but to compensate for this, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and the District of Columbia were nobly represented. The two former states in particular, did themselves great honor. Not only were their goods of the more substantial kind, but in their manufacture and finish they more than equalled their eastern sister states, and the prices were quite as moderate. It was the common remark that the southern goods were got up in fine style, for all the other states south of the District were equally praiseworthy, though but few of the factories were represented.

Taken altogether, the fair afforded a magnificent display, and gave abundant evidence that all the promises of the friends of the system heretofore made have been fulfilled, of furnishing all articles at moderate prices and in great abundance.

We were glad to know that the enemies of American skill and labor abandoned their old ground of "the taxing the many for the benefit of the few," and that their cry now is, that goods are made here so well and so cheap that they need no protection. This is giving up the whole controversy; for if they believe this to be true, then arguments multiply why the tariff should remain as it is. For if it be true, all their legislation will be only to strike a dead letter from the statute book, and then how can they raise as much revenue as is now raised, by lowering the rates of duty.

We however believe, with Mr. Calhoun, that our manufactures still *do* require protection "to put them beyond the reach of contingency;" and well assured are we that it will prove a deep national injury, materially to change the present tariff, and utter ruin to any party that shall perpetrate such a deed.

But we are occupying too much space, and must proceed with the catalogue of the fair.

CATALOGUE IN STATES.

Maine.—Tickings, jeans, brown cottons, anvils, vices, and scythes.

New-Hampshire.—Sheetings and shirtings, brown and bleached drillings, jeans, negro-cloth, flannels, baizes, cassimeres, rope from American hemp, together with a machine for cutting sausage meat, machine for splitting leather, musical instruments, and an artificial leg.

Vermont.—Broadcloths and flannels.

Massachusetts.—Brown and bleached cotton sheetings, shirtings, prints, printing cloths, drillings, &c.; cotton bagging, cotton sail duck, white and red flannels, checks, cloths and cassimeres, shawls, carpeting and hearth rugs, alpacas, mouseline de laines; and, in fine, every species of cotton and woollen goods. Harpoons, lancets, spades, files, scythes, with the greatest variety of hardware. Silks, sewing silks, &c. Glass ware, boots and shoes, with leather, and almost every species of manufacture from it. Paper and stationary of every kind. Pianos, upholstery, gold and silver ware, groceries, perfumery, straw goods, soap, swords, cutlery, cannon, &c. Agricultural implements, mathematical instruments, models in bridges and architecture, machines of many descriptions, and a great variety of miscellaneous articles, minerals, &c.

Rhode Island.—Cotton sheetings and shirtings, brown and bleached, cambrics, prints, chintzes, nankeens, mouseline de laines, and a variety of other dry goods. Steel ware, railroad iron, leather, oil, with sundry miscellaneous articles.

Connecticut.—Brown sheetings and diapers, broadcloths, cassimeres, flannels, satinetts, beaver-cloths, carpetings and hearth rugs, table cutlery, hardware, harness trimmings, files, cast iron pumps, ivory combs, &c., glass ware, stationary, clocks, and sundry miscellaneous articles.

New-York.—Cotton shirtings, printing cloths, prints, broadcloths, cassimeres, silks and woollens, spools and tape, corded skirts, cutlery and other hardware, shears for cutting nails, cut nails, wrought iron of many descriptions, screws, wire cloth, stoves, brass and copper wire cloth, iron in bars, India rubber goods, American silk goods, straw goods, splendid glass ware from Brooklyn, chandeliers, leather, chemicals of various kinds, looking glass, hats and caps, agricultural implements in great variety, tanning machine, filterers, pins, stationary, perfumery, pianos and guitars, telescopes, lithographic prints, chronometers, a large copper sailing boat, specimens of lard oil, and other miscellaneous articles.

New-Jersey.—Brown cotton sheeting, prints, sail-duck, counterpanes, quilts, shawls, table covers, suspenders, silks, patent spring locks, padlocks, scissors and shears, stair rods, lamps, sail-duck of cotton and hemp, leather, boots and shoes, oil-cloth, lamps, carriages, hats, bricks, &c., &c.

Pennsylvania.—Cotton warps, prints, chintzes, ginghams, dimities, tickings, bagging, pantaloon drillings, coverlets, braids, cotton and woollen goods in great variety, checks, broadcloth, blanketing, carpeting, cassimeres, shawls, hosiery (woollen and cotton,) jeans, kerseys, satinetts, specimens of sheep's wool, cut nails, spades and shovels, wire, axes and hatchets, tacks, locks, coffee mills, scales, solid bar vices, mill and cross-cut saws, steel, tin ware, saddlery tools, bellows, files, American sheet iron, turnings in metal, American tinned iron, stoves, carriage springs, boiler and bar iron, hollow-ware and castings of every kind; butt hinges, specimen pig iron, shoes, boots, leather, lasts, fire hose rivetted, India rubber shoes, morocco and kid leather, coach harness, saddlery, slates, books and stationary, types and dies, upholstery, cabinet ware, paper hangings, oil-cloths, silver ware, gold watch and case, red and white lead, and a variety of chemicals; perfumery, maccaroni and vermicelli, hats, caps and military chapeaux, umbrellas, canes and parasols, with a great variety of military equipments, agricultural implements, machines and models of various kinds, bellows, surgical instruments, piano-fortes, flutes and clarionets, paintings, daguerreotype portraits, galvanic battery, and a variety of miscellaneous articles.

Delaware.—Tickings, cloths, front door and mortice locks.

Maryland.—Cotton sheetings, shirtings, drillings, prints, chintzes, osnaburgs, bagging, sail-duck, cotton yarn, roller cloth, shawls, mouseline de laines, cloths, cassimeres, blanketing, carpeting, &c.; copper (sheet and bolt,) copper nails, cutlery, nail and bar iron, bells, wire scives, saws, knives and forks, boilers, cooking ranges and cooking stoves with hot air furnace, registers for furnaces, silver plating, baths, wire work, military gloves, shirts, combs, sewing silk, glass ware, domestic crockery, stone ware, candlesticks, leather, hose and hose pipes, shoes, trunks, saddles and harness, wagons, books bound as specimens, corn stalk wrapping paper, refrigerators, paper hangings, silver ware, fancy soap and perfumery, glue, candles, chemicals, blacking, white lead, hats, umbrellas, parasols and canes; shot of all sizes, pivot guns, agricultural tools and implements, Chase's card spinner for covering cotton yarn with a coating of wool, weavers' shuttles, filtering apparatus, spinning frame and power loom, dental, surgical, and musical instruments; pianos, engraving on cornelian stone, specimens of turning, yarn hose, ship's pumps, and a variety of miscellaneous articles.

Virginia.—Cotton shirtings, drillings, osnaburgs, cotton yarn, seine twine, flannels, silk, kerseys and satinetts, edge tools, axes, chisels, andirons, raw iron, flue iron, pig iron, glass ware, hemp, paper, tobacco, salt, guns, rifles, patent plough, threshing and cutting machines, tobacco press, bituminous coal, iron ore, with a number of small articles.

North Carolina.—Brown cotton sheeting and a rifle.

South Carolina.—Very superb specimens of cotton sail-duck.

Georgia.—Cotton twist and nankeens, bar and pig iron.

Kentucky.—Sewing silk and handkerchiefs, water-rotted hemp and mustard.

Ohio.—Brown cottons, hemp, tarred rope, bell line and sash cord, various instruments, magnetic water gauge, wine, etc.

Arkansas.—Cotton checks.

Indiana.—Windmill, with presses.

Illinois.—Waterproof cement.

District of Columbia.—Hearth rug, urn and tea kettle, hardware, sand stones, furnace, iron bath, patent pump, cooking stoves, soda fountain, raised silk, stone ware, boots and slippers, leather, carriages, carpet bags, lady's hunting saddle, stationary, books, specimens of binding, gold and silver ware, glue, tobacco, hats, caps and chapeaux, ball press and trimmer, agricultural implements, plough, washing machine, and churn, steam engine, daguerreotype pictures, Hart's bust of Henry Clay, guitars, paintings, marble cupid, magnetic machine, miniature machine, embroidery, dry pressed bricks, with a variety of beautiful miscellaneous articles.

Cotton Goods of all Descriptions.

No. 3. Sugar River Manufacturing Co. at Claremount, N. H., by Parker, Wilder and Parker, agents, Boston—4 pieces unbleached shirtings, 6⅜ cents per yard; 6 pieces Claremount sheetings, 12-4 wide, 34 cents per yard.

No. 4. Weare Manufacturing Co. Weare, Mass., Parker, Wilder and Parker, agents, Boston, Mass.—4 pieces brown drillings, 7¼ cents per yard.

No. 5. Sugar River Manufacturing Co. Claremount, N. H., Parker, Wilder and Parker, agents, Boston, Mass.—4 pieces of brown sheetings, 36 inches wide, 9 cents per yard.

No. 7. Sunapee Factory, Claremount, N. H., Parker, Wilder and Parker, agents, Boston, Mass.—4 pieces brown jeans, 30 inches, 8 cents per yard; 4 pieces brown shirting, 28 inches, 6¼ cents per yard.

Nos. 8 and 9. New Ipswich Factory, New Ipswich, N. H., Parker, Wilder and Parker, agents, Boston, Mass.—4 pieces of American drilling, 27 inches, 7 cents per yard.

No. 10. Sugar River Manufacturing Co. Claremount, N. H.—Parker, Wilder and Parker, agents, Boston, Mass.—4 pieces unbleached sheeting, 46½ inches, 13¼ cents per yard.

No. 16. Union Factory, Petersboro', N. H., Parker, Wilder and Parker, agents, Boston, Mass.—4 pieces bleached cottons, 31 inches, 10½ cents per yard.

No. 17. Orcutt and Warner, Ashfield, Mass.—specimens linen and cotton shirt collars.

No. 21. Ida Mills, Troy, N. Y., by W. D. Walcott, agent—8 pieces of striped shirtings, 17 cents per yard.

New-York Mills, Oneida Co. N. Y., by same agent—3 pieces of cotton cassimeres, 31 cents per yard; 6 patterns corded skirts, 65 cents per yard; 3 pieces of linen folded shirtings, 16 cents per yard; 2 pieces of extra fine shirtings, 16 cents per yard; 4 pieces of superfine shirtings, 16 cents per yard; 4 pieces of fine shirtings, 13½ cents per yard; 2 pieces of twilled shirtings, 16 cents per yard; 8 pieces striped shirtings, 17 cents per yard.

No. 22. Passaic Mills, Patterson, N. J., by John Colt, agent—9 very fine specimens of cotton duck, 5 yards each.

No. 23. L. J. G. Grisnell, agent, New-York, for J. S. Gladding, Plainfield, Ct.—5 pieces brown sheetings.

No. 25. John Colt, Patterson, N. J., J. G. Dudley & Co. agents, New-York—5 pieces brown sheetings, 8½ cents per yard.

No. 31. Ettrick Manufacturing Co. Peersburg, Va., by R. C. Egerton, agent, Petersburg, Va.—5 bales brown shirtings, sheetings and osnaburgs, 5½, 6½, 7½, 7¾ cents per yard.

No. 32. Matoruca Manufacturing Co. Petersburg, Va., Varnum and Egerton, agents, Petersburg, Va.—2 bales family and Petersburg shirtings, 5½ and 5¼ cents per yard.

No. 33. Battersea Manufacturing Co. Petersburg, Va., J. B. Varnum, agent, Petersburg, Va.—2 bales brown sheetings and shirtings, 9 and 7½ cents per yard; 1 bale drillings 7¾ cents per yard; 1 bale osnaburgs, 8 cents per yard.

No. 35. W. & G. Pope & Co. Fairhaven, Mass.—specimen of cotton baggings, 18 and 19 cents per yard.

No. 38. Lonsdale Manufacturing Co. Lonsdale, R. I., by W. Kelley, agent—3 pieces white cotton, 16, 20 and 25 cents per yard; 1 piece white cotton cambric, 20 cents per yard; 1 piece yellow nankeens.

No. 44. Montgomery Manufacturing Co. Triadelphia, Pa., Thomas C. Miller, agent, Baltimore, Md.—3 pieces sheetings, specimens.

No. 62. Union Cotton Factory, Pittsburg, Pa., by J. K. Moorehead & Co., agents, Pittsburg, Pa.—3 specimens cotton warp.

No. 69. Read and Chadwick, Brunswick Manufacturing Co. Saml. K. George, agent, Baltimore—3 bales (1 sheeting, 2 drills,) 2 bales only received.

No. 74. Lowell Co. Lowell, Mass., A. & A. Lawrence & Co. Boston, Mass.—3 bales osnaburgs.

No. 75. Tremont Mills, Lowell, Mass., A. & A. Lawrence, Boston, Mass.—2 bales brown shirtings, and 2 bales brown sheetings, 40 pieces.

No. 76. Boott Cotton Mills, Lowell, Mass., A. & A. Lawrence & Co.—3 bales: 1 brown drill, 1 fine shirting, 1 fine printing cloths, 90 pieces.

No. 77. Massachusetts Cotton Mills, Lowell, Mass., A. & A. Lawrence & Co. Boston, Mass.—3 bales: 1 brown sheeting, 1 brown shirting, 1 brown drill.

No. 78. York Mills, Saco, Me., A. & A. Lawrence & Co. Boston, Mass.—13 packages, various styles, pantaloon stuffs, ticks, jeans, &c.

No. 86. Jackson Manufacturing Co. Nashua, N. H., A. & A. Lawrence & Co., Boston, Mass.—2 bales brown cotton.

No. 87. Lawrence Mills, Lowell, Mass., A. & A. Lawrence & Co. Boston, Mass.—11 packages, various styles, brown and bleached cottons.

No. 88. Lowell Manufacturing Co. Lowell, Mass., A. & A. Lawrence & Co. Boston, Mass.—1 case cambrics and Cumberland fancies; 1 case striped cottons.

No. 89. Laconia Manufacturing Co. Biddeford, Me., A. & A. Lawrence & Co. Boston, Mass.—1 bale fine brown jeans.

No. 90. James Rider, jr. Pawtucket, R. I.—1 case white sewing cotton; 1 case assorted sewing cotton.

No. 92. Merrimac Manufacturing Co. Lowell, Mass., J. W. Paige & Co. agents, Boston, Mass.; capital $2,000,000—8 cases Merrimac prints, different patterns; 1 bale brown sheetings.

No. 93. Suffolk Manufacturing Co. Lowell, Mass., J. W. Paige & Co. agents, Boston, Mass.—1 box Suffolk blue drills; 1 bale Suffolk brown drills.

No. 94. Appleton Manufacturing Co. Lowell, Mass.—2 bales Appleton brown sheetings; 1 bale Appleton brown shirtings.

No. 257. 15 cases cottons, prints, vestings, cotton flannels, pantaloon stuffs, &c. from the Hamilton Manufacturing Co. at Lowell, Mass.

No. 257. From Stark Mills, Manchester, N. H.—brown sheetings and drillings.

Also, From the Boston Manufacturing Co. Waltham, Mass.—11 packages brown and bleached cottons.

No. 443. James W. Paige, Boston, Mass.—1 case prints, various styles, bought in New-York, May, 1846, to show the low prices at which goods are sold out of season, in same manner as many of the British samples were bought, now exhibited at the Capitol.

No. 95. Bartlett Steam Mills, Newburyport, Mass., Tiffany, Ward & Co., agents, Baltimore, Md.—6 pieces brown cotton, very fine; 4 pieces bleached do. do.

No. 96. Portsmouth Co. South Berwick, Me., Tiffany, Ward & Co. agents, Baltimore, Md. 9 pieces brown cottons, 8¼ cents per yard.

No. 97. Franklin Factory, Cincinnati, Ohio, Tiffany, Ward & Co. Baltimore, Md. —2 bales, containing specimens brown cottons.

No. 97. Manchester Cotton and Woollen Manufacturing Co. Richmond, Va.—samples cotton yarn, osnaburgs, sheetings and shirtings.

No. 98. P. H. Vandervoort, New-York —3 gross spools of different colored tapes; ranging at various prices from $3.25 to $4.75 per spool.

No. 98. 12 packages specimen stay bindings, different colors, prices from 6 to 11 cents per yard.

No. 101. Otis Pettee, Newton's Upper Falls, Mass.—5 pieces brown cottons.

No. 102. Shetucket Mills, Norwich, Conn., Read & Chadwick, agents, Boston, Mass.—3 pieces shirtings, stripes, 9 cents per yard.

From Read & Chadwick, Boston, Mass. —45 pieces various styles prints.

No. 104. Phœnix Factory, Petersboro', N. H., Parker, Wilder & Parker, Boston, Mass.—4 pieces of bleached cottons.

No. 115. Ladies' Society, Danvers, Mass. —1 net counterpane.

No. 117. From Wm. R. Hanson & Brother, Philadelphia, Pa.—Manchester prints, fancy vestings and pantaloon stuffs, from J. P. Wendell & Co. 9 to 16 cents per yard; black and purple prints, cambric do., from Jas. McPhail & Co. 8 to 10½ cents per yard; Silesias, from Lonsdale Co. Lonsdale, R. I.

No. 118. William Smith, Manufacturer, Philadelphia, Pa., by Temple, Barker & Evans, agents, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box checks, furniture, prints and pantaloon stuffs.

No. 120. Joseph Ripka, Manufacturer, Philadelphia, Pa.—5 boxes dry goods, containing super chintz prints; super madder do.; super fancy do.; fancy pantaloon stuffs, all prices, from 30 to 10 cents per yard.

No. 121. From J. H. Withers & Co. Philadelphia, Pa.—10 pieces superior Paige Mill fancies, 25 cents per yard; 3 pieces superior Oregon pantaloon stuffs, 30 cents per yard.

No. 122. Joseph Flemming, Manufacturer, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box heavy pantaloon stuffs.

No. 123. From Waln & Leaming, Philadelphia, Pa.—fancy prints from George Bird's, 9 and 10 cents per yard; furniture prints, S. McBrides, 5 and 6 cents per yard.

No. 124. From David S. Brown & Co. Philadelphia, Pa.—chintzes, lawns, striped shirtings, fancies, &c. &c. from Wendell's, near Philadelphia, American Print Works, Fall River, Mass., and Cozzens, Providence, R. I,.

No. 129. J. Lammott, Philadelphia, Pa. —package specimen tickings.

No. 138. From John W. Downing, Philadelphia, Pa., agent for Benjamin Marshall, Ida Mills, Troy, N. Y.—17 pieces Ida Mills gingham, 21 cents per yard; 6 pieces furnituse dimity, 16½ cents per yd.

No. 151. David Milne & Son, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package containing 15 pieces cottons, consisting—super cotton pantaloon checks; union do.; drill checks; imitation cassimeres, etc. etc.

No. 170. Thomas P. Remington, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package specimen prints.

No. 180. Fisher, Miller & Co. Baltimore, Md., from the Union Manufacturing Co. of Maryland—1 bale containing 1 piece oiled sail duck, 25 cents per yard; 1 piece do. 21 cents per yard; 2 pieces brown drillings, 8 cents per yard.

From H. B. Lyman, Providence, R. I. —1 box containing cambrics, white, white before bleached, colored cambrics, brown before finishing, prices from 6¼ to 9½ cents per yard.

From C. Allen & Co. Providence, R. I. —2 cases bleached sheetings, 10 cents per yard; also, 1 case chintz prints—manufacturer not mentioned.

No. 185. Benedict Lapham, North Scituate, R. I., Manton, Kelley & Co. agents, Providence, R. I.—bleached and brown shirtings.

No. 208. John P. Crozer, Manufacturer, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package specimen tickings and shirtings, stripes and denims.

No. 209. Garced & Brother, Frankford, Pa.—2 cases cotton and woollen goods.

No. 223. David Trainer, Delaware co. Pa., by Yates and Canby, agents, at Baltimore, Md.—5 pieces specimens tickings.

No. 224. Brandywine Cotton Mills, Wilmington, Del. by Yates and Canby, agents, at Baltimore, Md.—4 pieces specimens tickings.

No. 248. Fisher, Miller & Co. Baltimore, Md., from Lonsdale Manufacturing Co. Lonsdale, R. I.—9 cases, containing as follows: fine, superfine, and bleached sheetings; assorted and superfine rolled Silesias; black casbars; paper and sarsenet muslins; nankeens, etc., etc., varying in prices; sheetings from 14 to 20 cts. per yard, Silesias from 12½ to 22 cents per yd. casbars 16 cents; paper and sarsenet muslins from 10 to 13 cents per yard, nankeens 10 cents per yard.

No. 271. Wyman, Appleton & Co., Baltimore, Md., from Dwight Manufacturing Co. Cabotville, Mass.—120 pieces long cloth bleached sheetings, prices varying from 13 to 15 cents per yard; 25 pieces brown shirtings, 30 do bleached do, 8 to 11 cents per yard; 15 pieces brown drilling, 10 pieces blue do, 20 pieces bleached do, prices from 8 to 10 cents per yd.; 45 pieces shirtings, heavy and fine, prices, 6¼ to 14 cents per yard; 85 pieces do, bleached and brown, 13 to 15 cents per yard. From James' Steam Mills, Newburyport, Mass.—165 pieces brown and bleached shirtings, prices 10 to 14 cents per yard; 12 pieces bleached twilled cotton shirtings, cambrics, and shirtings linen fold, prices not given. From Providence Dying, Bleaching and Calico Co., Providence, R. I.—1 case Silesias and linen fold shirtings, prices not given. From Lodi Print Works, Lodi, N. J.—Lavender 2d mourning prints; extra black and white do; extra black and white ginghams, etc., etc., prices, from 9 to 11 cents per yard; 36 pieces fancy prints, from 10 to 15 cents per yard. From Nashua Manufacturing Company, Nashua, N. H.—40 pieces sheetings, Nashua extra and India, prices 7 and 8 cents per yard; 25 pieces Nashua shirtings, price 6¼ cents per yard; 20 pieces Nashua jeans, price 8 cents per yard; 25 pieces India drilling, 8½ cents per yard. From Chicopee Manufacturing Company, Chicopee, Mass.—60 pcs. brown, bleached, and blue drillings, prices 8 and 10 cts. per yard; 170 pcs. fine and heavy brown sheetings, printings, bleached long cloth, cambrics, average prices from 6 to 10 cts. per yard. From Great Falls Manufacturing Company, Cabotsville, Mass.—490 pcs. prints, shirtings, cambrics, sheetings, drillings, etc., prices averaging from 6¾ to 11 cents per yard. From Perkins' Mills, Cabotville, Mass.—255 pieces brown, bleached, and blue drillings, butted, brown, and long cloth printings, and cambrics, prices averaging from 8 to 10 cents per yard. From Whittenton Mills, Cabotville, Mass.—120 pieces bleached and long cloth prints, and colored cambric prints, from 7 to 8 cents per yard. From Cabot Manufacturing Company, Cabotville, Mass. —80 pieces heavy brown and long cloth sheetings and shirtings, prices from 8 to 8½ cents per yard. From A. & W. Sprague, Providence, R. I.—61 pieces printed calicoes, Nos. from 1 to 11, prices from 11 to 18 cents per yard. From Eagle Factory, Petersburg, Va.—1 bale osnaburgs. From Spring Manufacturing Company—2 boxes Suffolk shirtings and sheetings.

No. 273. Murdock & Co., Baltimore, Md., from Rockfish Manufacturing Co., Fayetteville, N. Carolina—one bale brown sheeting, price 7¼ cents per yard. From Phenix Manufacturing Company, Providence, R. I.—3 pieces bleached sheetings, prices from 33 to 36 cents per yard.

No. 346. Parks, Wright & Co., Boston, Mass.—3 cases fancy printing cottons, from the Columbian, Otis, Cordis, Palmer and Thorndike Manufacturing Companies.

No. 294. 1 bag of stockings, samples yarn, scoured and unscoured, colored and uncolored; 1 piece twilled plaid linsey, and 1 piece plaid horse blanket; 1 piece unscoured kersey; 1 piece scoured do; 1 piece blanketing, and piece fulled kersey; 1 piece three-ply carpeting; 1 do ingrain do; 1 do Ruby do.

All the above-named articles are made of cotton, covered by woollen fibre, and carded and spun upon *Chase's card-spinner*, and possess all the appearance and warmth of woollen fabrics.

No. 297. Wethered and Brothers, Baltimore, Md.—3 bales cotton osnaburgs.

No. 301. Yates and Canby, Baltimore, Md., from Samuel Riddles, Penn's Grove, Pa., 1 case dry goods, containing specimens, 8 pieces printing cloths, Canton flannels, tickings, and fancy prints, prices from 4 to 12 cents per yard. From Joseph Haslam, Patterson, N. J., 1 bale specimens counterpanes and quilts, prices from $1 50 to $3 each.

No. 317. Charles T. Wortham, Richmond, Va.—6 bales cotton yarn.

No. 352. W. Woodward & Co., Baltimore, Md., from Mechanics' Company, Petersburg, Va.—shirtings, sheetings, and osnaburgs. From S. J. Dickey and Bros, Hopewell, Chester co., Pa., cotton baggings, bundle twine. From Gray Manufacturing Co., Ellicott's Mills, Maryland, osnaburgs, twilled and plain, and cotton bagging. From Merchant's Company, Petersburg, Va., A. Kevan, agent; brown shirtings and osnaburgs. Canal Mills, Petersburg, Va., A. Kevan, agent, brown shirtings and osnaburgs. From Shadwell Mills, Charlottesville, Va., one bale osnaburgs.

No. 353. John T. Pitman, Providence, R. I.—5 pieces sheetings.

No. 363. Gambrill, Carroll & Co., Baltimore, Md.—13 pieces sheetings, and 14 bales cotton duck.

No. 364. Pawhatan Manufacturing Co., Baltimore, Md., by Wm. Mason, agent—5 pieces specimens muslin.

No. 437. Mrs. Paschal Van Buren, Ark.—specimen of cotton checks.

No. 440. Lancaster mills, Lancaster, Mass., 3 cases quilts, different sizes.

No. 442. George Bird, Belleville, N. J.—1 case prints, various styles.

No. 446. Merrill and Cunningham, Greensboro', Ga.—Specimens cotton twist.

No. 468. R. & M. T. Mitchell, Hollidaysburg, Pa.—2 cards braids.

No. 469. Virginia Crooken, Washington City—1 card braids.

No. 507. Benj. Hanseman, York, Pa.—specimen coverlids.

No. 514. C. Hager, Lancaster, Pa.—1 piece Conestoga cord.

No. 519. John Sharpley, Baltimore, Md., 3 pieces shirtings.

520. Thos. H. Fulton, Baltimore, Md., from Washington Factory—11 pieces sheetings, and 50lbs. cotton yarn.

No. 521. New Market Manufacturing Company, Salem, Mass.—3 packages, sundry styles, brown and bleached shirtings and sheetings.

No. 525. J. C. Kempton, near Phila., Pa.—4 cases various styles pantaloon stuffs, ticks and checks.

No. 533. Leonard, Hone & Nicholl, New-York—1 bale printing cloths, 1 case cotton fancy goods.

No. 565. Conway and Slaughter, Falmouth, Va.—3 pieces, No. 1, 30 inch osnaburgs, 1 bundle seine twine.

No. 570. Hon. James F. Simmons, Providence, R. I.—1 case cambrics.

No. 613. Daniel Packer & Co., Plainfield, Ct.—4 pieces diapers.

No. 629. Peter Lawson, Pearson Manufactory, Lowell, Mass.—6 bolts cotton duck.

No. 648. Towner, Dunlap & Co., Baltimore, Md.—specimens of roller cloth.

No. 671. Nesmith & Co., New-York, from the Central Steam-mills—1 package of Georgia nankeens.

No. 715. American Print Works, Fall River, Mass—Fancy and chintz prints of various styles. Tackowanna Mills, Frankfort, Pa.—Fancy prints, different styles.

No. 733. Stephen Randall, Providence, R. I.—Specimen of candle-wicks.

No. 771. James C. Kempton, Manayunk, Penn.—10 pieces marine checks.

No. 774. James Campbell, Leperville, Del., Pa.—1 piece cotton bagging.

No. 797. James C. Kempton, Manayunk, Pa.—3 pieces Boston ticking.

Laurel Factory, Md.—Samples yard wide sheetings, heavy 30 inch drills.

Woollens and Carpets.

No. 6. F. Faulkner & Sons, Bellerica, Mass., Parker, Wilder & Parker, agents, Boston—8 pieces twilled and plain red flannels.

Nos. 8 and 9. New Ipswich Factory, New Ipswich, N. H.—2 pieces negro cloths.

No. 11. John Herren, Waterville, Vt., Parker, Wilder & Parker, Boston, agents—4 pieces white flannels.

No. 12. N. O. Whitehouse & Co., Rochester, N. H., Parker, Wilder & Parker, Boston, agents—2 pieces red flannels.

No. 13. Haron Cowley, Rochester, N. H., Parker, Wilder & Parker, Boston, agents—1 piece green bockings.

No. 14. Joseph Noone, Peterboro', N. H., Parker, Wilder & Parker, Boston, agents—2 pieces cassimeres.

No. 15. Asa Woodbury, Wilkinsonville, Mass., Parker, Wilder & Parker, Boston, agents—2 pieces tweeds.

No. 27. Mr. Harris, Richards & Cronkhite, agents, New-York—14 pieces specimen cassimeres.

No. 29. Thompson & Co. Thompsonville, Ct., by D. Clagett, agent, Washington, D. C.—2 pieces Aixminister carpeting, $2 75 per yard, first manufactured in this country; 6 pieces of Brussels carpeting, $1 40 and $1 70 per yard; 2 do. do. do. $1 40 and $1 70 per yard; 2 do. 3 ply do. $1 20 per yard; 1 do. super ingrain, 80c. per yard; 1 do. do. do. 80c. per yard; 1 do. fine do. 55c. per yard; 4 Chenille rugs, $10 00; 2 extra worsted do. $15 00.

No. 50. James & T. A. Barnes, Green Factory, Green co., Pa.—Small samples of broad cloth.

No. 54. Michael Daly, Stocking Factory, Pittsburg, Pa.—Specimen hose, gray woollen drawers, woollen shirts, etc., strong and of good quality.

No. 72. George Rapp, Economy, Pa.—9 specimens of blankets.

No. 74. Lowell Co., Boston, Mass., A. & A. Lawrence, Boston, Mass.—7 pieces assorted carpetings; 6 assorted rugs.

No. 79. Maverick Mills, Dedham, Mass.—J. W. Edmonds, owner, Boston, Mass.—16 pieces cassimeres; 12 do. satinetts; 7 do. do.; 3 do. plaid satinetts; 2 do. checks do.

No. 80. Webster Woollen Mills, Samuel Slater & Sons, owners, Webster, Mass.—7 pieces of black and colored cloths, prices from $3 00 to $3 87½.

No. 81. Middlesex Co. Lowell, Mass., Lawrence, Stone & Slade, Boston, agents, by Alexander Turnbull & Co. Baltimore, agents—3 cases handsome specimens of cassimeres, wool-dyed, plain, mixed, striped, &c., &c.

No. 82. Ballard Vale Co., J. P. Bradlee, treasurer, Boston, Mass.; John Marland, Andover, Mass., A. Turnbull & Co., Baltimore, Md., selling agents—15 pieces worsteds and flannels, consisting of black, mixed, alpaca lustre, blue black, Orleans, &c., &c. coating, and white, and colored flannels, prices ranging from 30 to 45 cts. per yard for worsted coatings, and from 45 to 60 cts. for flannels.

No. 83. Norwich Woollen Co., Charles W. Rockwell, owner, Norwich, Conn., A. Turnbull & Co. agents, Baltimore, Md.—10 pieces fancy cassimeres, 80c. per yard.

No. 84. Northfield Manufacturing Co., Northfield, Vt., F. Skinner & Co., agents, Boston, Mass., A. Turnbull & Co., agents, Baltimore, Md.—2 cases, 12 pieces broad cloth, black and blue.

No. 85. Erastus Williams, Norwich, Conn., A. Turnbull & Co., agents, Baltimore, Md.—5 pieces flannels.

No. 98. P. H. Vandervoort, New-York—8 pieces of specimen beaver satinetts, consisting of plain, cadet, black, and gold mixed, etc. etc., prices ranging from 65 to 75 cts. per yard.

No. 99. P. H. Vandervoort, New-York, from Glenham Co., Fishkill, N. Y.—3 pieces kerseymeres; 12 pieces black broad cloth; 4 pieces brown do.

No. 100. J. Dunnell & Co., Pawtucket, R. I.—8 pieces mouselin de laines.

No. 103. S. Sheppard & Son, Taunton, Mass.—2 pieces Canton flannel.

No. 108. Wm. W. Marshall, Washington City, D. C.—Deposited 1 large and handsome shawl, knit by a lady of Hagerstown, Washington co., Md., aged 60 years.

No. 113. John Bancroft, Philadelphia, Pa.—3 bales carpeting, containing 1 piece imperial, three ply, 103 yards, at $1 25; 1 piece super ingrain, 104 yards at $0 80; 1 piece extra fine, 104 yards, at $0 65.

No. 117. Woonasquatucket Print Works, Providence, R. I.—Rich mouselin de laines, various styles. J. & I. Eddy, Fall River, Mass.—Light and dark, plain and fancy cassimeres, different styles. Burlington Co.—Fancy cassimeres, various styles, and tweeds, of different widths.

No. 119. From Stone, Slade & Farnham, Philadelphia, Pa.—10 pieces fancy cassimeres, cloakings and coatings.

No. 123. From Waln' and Leaming, Philadelphia, Pa.—Wool shawls, tweeds, etc., from J. & J. Dearie; fancy plaid shawls, from William Rowbotham.

No. 124. From David S. Brown & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—Extra black, brown, blue, and cadet mixed cloths, $2 to $7 per yard. Super black, fancy, light and dark cassimeres, $1 50 to $1 87½ per yard, from W. & D. D. Farnum, Waterford, Mass. Fancy cassimeres, from Phelps. East Windsor, Conn., $1 per yard. Yellow and scarlet flannels, from A. J. Sawyer, Dover, N. H., 25c. per yard. Plaid, Glasgow, and fancy kerseys, from A. S. Howard, Gonico Co., Rochester, N. H., 18c. and 20c. per yard. Shenandoah fancy cassimeres, striped and bird's-eye jean, from S. Moore & Co., Newton, Pa., 28c. to 38c. per yard. Fancy cassimere, from The New England Co., Vernon, Conn., $1 12½ per yard; worsted and silk embroidered shawls, plaid, do. Embossed table and piano covers, from Duncan and Cunningham, Belleville, N. J.; prices for shawls, from $1 25 to $15; prices for table covers, $3 to $7.

No. 124. Olive, gold, and Adam mixed jeans, 37½c. per yard; cassimere striped, and kersey twilled, do., from William Divine, Philadelphia, Pa. Fancy cassimeres, from Somerville, Somers, Con. 75c. per yard. Blue cloth, from Dupont Louviers, near Wilmington, Del., $1 87½c. per yard. Do. do. from McCallmont Crescent Factory, near Philadelphia, Pa.

$1 75. Brown do., from Ryan, Norfolk, Conn., $1 75 per yard.

No. 140. Charles Spencer, manufacturer, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case assorted specimens hosiery, containing white lamb's wool, blue mixt, blue clouded, and scarlet clouded hose; also fancy striped woollen comforts.

No. 152. Wakefield Mills, Germantown, Pa., Thos. R. Fisher, do. do.—1 package, containing children's, youths', women, and men's hose, of every quality.

No. 170. Thos. P. Remington, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package Paris and willow glen cassimeres, and keystone jeans.

No. 183. Eaton, Brothers & Co., Baltimore, Md.—4 cases mouselin de laines, from Bristol Manufacturing Co., Taunton, Mass., printed in dress patterns, graduated robes; also printed wool handkerchiefs; printed wool scarfs; do. do. shawls.

No. 189. Jno. Rosencrantz, Philadelphia, Pa.—4 bales carpeting, containing as follows: 1 piece imperial, three ply, $1 20 per yard; 1 piece fine ingrain, 65c. per yard; 1 piece superfine do. 80c. per yard; 1 piece Venetian, $1 per yard. Also 1 parcel containing 3 patterns handsome Brussels, at $1 45 per yard.

No. 191. J. L. Wentworth, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 bales specimen carpetings; 1 three ply, $1 25 per yard; 1 super ingrain, 80c.

No. 203. Washington Manufacturing Co., South Coventry, Conn., by Wood and Errenger, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 pieces specimen satinetts, prices 70c. and 75c. per yard.

No. 207. D. B. Hinman & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—2 pieces silk tweed, from J. R. Wetherill, Philadelphia, Pa.; 11 pieces Alpine, silk striped, Belgian, do. do. do. Oregon, etc., cassimeres, from J. R. Wetherill and W. & D. Watts, Philadelphia, Pa.; 1 piece black cloth, from J. R. Wetherill & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.; 2 pieces plaid cloakings, from Dickson & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.; 2 pieces black satinetts, J. R. Wetherill & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

No. 265. Lounsbury, Bissell & Co., Norwalk, Conn.—6 pieces, specimens of felt beaver cloth.

No. 267. Andrew Kump, Hanover, Pa.—4 damask coverlets.

No. 271. Wyman, Appleton & Co., Baltimore, Md., from Chelmsford Woollen Co., Lowell, Mass.—9 pieces plains and kerseys, various qualities, prices from 17c. to 37½c. per yard. From Scofield, Capron & Co., Waldon, Orange co., N. Y.—8 pcs. cloths, different colors, prices from $2 to $3 50 per yard. From Pontoosuc Woollen Manufacturing Co., Pittsfield, Mass.—5 pcs. silver and pearl, drab and twilled cloth, prices from $2 37½ to $1 75 per yard. From Thomas Drake, Coquanock Factory, Philadelphia, Pa.—14 pieces Kentucky jeans, different colors, prices from 36c. to 40c. per yard. From S. Blackinton, North Adams, Mass.—6 pcs. satinetts and merino cassimeres, at 75c. per yard; also 56 pcs. Kentucky jeans and satinetts, of various patterns, prices from 32½c. to 62½c. per yard.

No. 297. Wethered and Brothers, Baltimore, Md.—1 case, assorted specimens, fancy cassimeres and doeskins, ranging from 85c. to $2 per yard; also cotton osnaburgs and heavy twilled drillings.

No. 307. Caleb Jones, Richmond, Va., from Virginia Woollen Co., Richmond, Va.—16 pieces red flannels, plain and twilled, various widths.

No. 313. Edward Denny, Barre, Mass., A. Turnbull & Co., agents, Baltimore, Md.—4 pieces of extra French black cloths; 6 pieces fancy cassimeres.

No. 314. Oriskany Co., Oriskany, N. Y., Turnbull & Co., agents, Baltimore, Md.—1 case wool black cloths; 4 pieces specimens fine tweeds.

No. 315. N. O. Kellogg, Vernon, Conn., Turnbull & Co., agents, Baltimore, Md.—4 pieces specimens fancy tweeds.

No. 329. Jones' Manufacturing Co., Boston, Mass., F. Skinner & Co., selling agents, Boston, Mass., Turnbull & Co., agents, Baltimore, Md.—1 case fancy cassimeres and cloths.

No. 332. F. C. Clopper, Woodlands, Md.—7 specimens woollen goods, consisting of cloths, tweeds, linseys, blankets, etc., etc.

Nos. 333 and 335. Waterston, Pray & Co., Boston, Mass., from the Salisbury Manufacturing Co., Boston, Mass.—9 cases specimens cloakings, tweeds, different patterns, etc., etc.

No. 352. Wm. Woodward & Co., Baltimore, Md., from J. J. Dickey, Hopewell, Chester co., Pa.—1 piece woollen kersey.

No. 356. Bond, Wyman & Arkley, Boston, Mass.—13 pieces flannels, different colors.

No. 387. Northampton Co., Northampton, Mass., F. Skinner & Co., selling agents, Boston, Mass., A. Turnbull & Co. agents, Baltimore, Md.—3 cases cloths black and brown, of different qualities.

No. 395. Middlesex Manufacturing Co., Lowell, Mass., Lawrence, Stone & Slade, agents, Boston, Mass., A. Turnbull & Co., agents, Baltimore, Md.—6 pieces fancy cassimeres.

No. 420. C. G. Conradt, Baltimore Md., by D. Clagett, Washington, D. C.—3 pieces ingrain carpeting.

No. 436. Wm. P. Eliason, Madison co., Va.—Specimens satinetts, kerseys, linseys, and flannels.

No. 438. The Misses Masi, Washington, D. C.—1 hearth rug.

No. 439. David S. Brown & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case blankets, differing in prices and qualities.

No. 476. George G. Bishop, Norwalk, Conn.—1 case pilot cloths felted, without spinning or weaving.

No. 479. Hamilton Woollen Co., Southbridge, Mass., Sayles, Merriam & Brewer, Boston, A. Turnbull & Co., agents, Baltimore—1 case broad cloths.

No. 487. C. M. Reed, Washington, Penn.—16 specimens wool.

No. 489. Earle & Eames, Worcester, Mass.—Specimens machine card clothing.

No. 493. Davis, Morey & Co., Ipswich, Mass.—4 pieces elastic flannels, white, blue, red, and green.

No. 505. Dorastus Kellogg, Skaneateles, N. Y.—5 pieces silk and wool tweeds.

No. 522. Wm. T. Crook, Delaware co., Penn., Thomas and Martin, Philadelphia, agents—8 pieces flannels, consisting of white and scarlet colors.

No 526. Jefferson Woollen Co., Jefferson, N. Y.—2 pieces broad cloths.

No. 568. Greenfield Co., Greenfield, Mass., James K. Mills & Co., Boston, Mass.—6 pieces black cassimere.

No. 618. George Schley, Augusta, Georgia—4 pieces woollen, plain and twilled, negro cloths, and osnaburgs.

No. 622. R. Bacon & Son, Boston, Mass.—Specimens felting.

No. 634. John Marland, by A. Turnbull & Co., agents, Baltimore, Md.—1 piece bombazine.

No. 677. Wyman, Appleton & Co., Baltimore, Md.—1 case woollen goods.

No. 749. J. Waterhouse & Sons, South Walpole, Mass.—9 pieces black and blue cloths, and cassimeres.

No. 767. Franklin Manufacturing Co., Rockville, Conn.—4 pieces satinetts and tweeds.

No. 769. New-England Worsted Co., Boston, Mass.—Great variety of blankets, blanket coatings, bockings, buntings, &c.

No. 775. Joseph Kenyon, West Woodstock, Conn.—2 pieces cassimeres and tweeds.

No. 778. Samuel Diller & Son, York co., Pa.—3 pieces satinetts. Amesbury Flannel Manufacturing Co., Salisbury, Mass.—Great variety cloakings, flannels, satinetts, tweeds, silk and wool codringtons, &c., A. & A. Lawrence & Co., Boston, Mass., agents.

No. 788. Charles Warren & Co., Boston, Mass.—An assortment of yarns, hose, and shawls, of different qualities and colors.

No. 800. Crosby, Hale & Conckey, Norwich, Conn.—5 pieces different samples dometts; 2 rolls of fancy carpetings.

Hardware, Cutlery, &c.

No. 18. Edward Cook, for Mr. Howe, New-York—13 packages specimen pins, various numbers.

No. 20. Ibbotson & Horner, New-York—specimens of cutlery and other hardware, consisting of ivory table cutlery, congress knives, pearl handles, and a variety of other pocket cutlery of great beauty, hand saws, files, rasps, bastard files, etc. etc.

No. 36. T. K. Earle & Co. by J. Dennis, jr. Worcester, Mass.—specimens of machine card and cotton do.

No. 43. Wm. & H. M. McKim, Baltimore, Md.—5 specimens of copper, comprising Brazier's hot rolled copper, sheathings, copper rod, and assorted copper nails.

No. 46. J. B. Morse, Fairhaven, Mass.—2 harpoons, 1 lancet, and 1 spade.

No. 47. G. & J. H. Shoenberger, Pittsburg, Pa.—specimen card of cut nails.

No. 48. James R. Holmes, Pittsburg, Pa.—6 specimen axes, $10 a dozen; 3 shingling hatchets, $5 a dozen.

No. 49. Campbell & Chess, Pittsburg, Pa.—samples of tacks.

No. 51. James Patterson, jr. Pittsburg, Pa.—6 door and other locks.

No. 52. Livingston, Roggen & Co. Pittsburg, Pa.—specimen coffee and spice mills, of high finish; coffee hoppers, platform, balance, counter, and rotary scales, etc. etc.

No. 55. A. Lamont, Pittsburg, Pa.—6 spades and 6 shovels.

No. 63. R. Townsend & Co. Pittsburg, Pa.—3 specimens American wire: 2 copper and 1 iron.

No. 66. Jones & Quigg, Pittsburg, Pa.—3 specimens American steel.

No. 67. A. Lamont, Alleghany City, Pa.—2 solid bar vices.

No. 68. Berger, Wright & Co. Pittsburg, Pa.—½ dozen steel edged shovels.

No. 105. Broadmeadow Steel Works, Richmond, Va.—specimens edge tools.

No. 136. Bringhurst & Kirby, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box saws: containing circular, hand, wood saws; also, saw knives, steel blade squares, sliding T. bevels, etc. etc.

No. 137. Curtis & Hand, Philadelphia. Pa.—3 packages hardware.

No. 173. Sharpless & Mavis, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box specimens steel axes.

No. 177. Isaac S. Williams, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 cases specimens tin ware, consisting of dish covers, toilet set, tea pots, filterers, butter kettles, wine coolers, etc. etc.

No. 197. Robbins & Brother, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box steel.

No. 201. Thomas Durell, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box specimens hardware.

No. 202. H. Huber, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 boxes saddlers' tools.

No. 215. John Weightman, Philadelphia, Penn.—1 package containing specimens of American steel and iron shovels.

No. 228. Brown & Eyre, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 cutwater.

No. 229. Charles W. Warnock & Co. Philadelphia, Pa.—3 boxes containing specimens teakettles and castings.

No. 235. George W. Netz, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box bellows.

No. 243. Wm. Rowland, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box saws.

No. 246. Edward Jones, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case stair rods.

No. 251. E. Pratt & Brothers, Baltimore, Md.—3 cases containing specimens of butts, castors, horse shoes, wrought spikes, bolts, trunk and chest handles, safety fuses, chain, nails, railroad iron, etc. etc.

No. 260. W. & H. McKim, Baltimore, Md.—1 box sheet and bolt copper.

No. 263. Ankrim & Co. Pittsburg, Pa.—1 case of files.

No. 275. Pratt, Ropes, Webb & Co. Meriden, Conn.—2 cases table cutlery.

No. 276. Charles Parker, Meriden, Conn.—1 patent vice, also specimens Coffee mills, and door latches.

No. 278. Sanford, Newton & Co. Meriden, Conn.—1 set ship long, short and conver polished augers; 2 pairs skates and 3 cotton hooks.

No. 279. Henry S. Wilcox, Meriden, Conn.—1 steel-yard.

No. 280. Silliman & Eastman, Meriden, Conn.—8 cast iron ink-stands.

No. 281. Wm. L. Coan, Meriden, Conn.—2 cards cast iron harness trimmings.

No. 287. Rodenburg, Stewart & Co. South Easton, Pa.—1 case wire.

No. 296. Jesse Marden, Baltimore, Md.—3 pairs specimen scales; 1 patent ball mould.

No. 300. Cortlan & Son, Baltimore, Md.—1 bath tub with fixtures; 1 shower bath do.; 3 foot baths, one leg do.; also, 2 bath pans, toilet jars, and vapor apparatus.

No. 306. Doctor McWilliams, Washington, D. C.—1 patent fruit gatherer.

No. 323. Broadmeadow Mining and Manufacturing Co. Richmond, Va.—specimens of steel, axes, chisels, etc.

No. 348. David Wilkinson, Cohoes, N. Y.—1 pair shears for cut nails, *first ever invented.*

No. 366. Samuel Jackson, Baltimore, Md.—3 cards cutlery.

No. 383. George H. Gray & Co. Boston, Mass.—1 case specimen files.

No. 386. Francis Y. Naylor, Washington, D. C.—1 urn and 1 teakettle specimens.

No. 392. Wm. Wheeler & Co. Troy, N. Y.—1 case American curry combs.

No. 416. Lemmon & Glen, Baltimore, Md.—1 specimen card nails, and 6 specimens bar iron.

No. 417. Campbell & Coyle, agents, Washington, D. C., Blake & Brothers, New-Haven, Conn.—4 patterns cards.

No. 445. Alfred H. Reip, Baltimore, Md.—specimens baths.

No. 452. Roswell Gleason, Dorchester, Mass.—specimens Britannia ware, consisting of candlesticks, lamps, tea ware, urns, spittoons, tumblers, etc. etc.

No. 473. Roy & Co. Watervleit, N. Y.—specimens wrought iron butts.

No. 481. John W. Baden, Washington, D. C.—1 glass case containing American hardware.

No. 483. John Haskell, Baltimore, Md.—6 bells, different sizes.

No. 486. L. & V. Kirby, New-York—10 boxes needles, made by Essex & Co. N. Y.

No. 512. Henry Y. Hartman, Scotsville, Alb. co. Va.—1 pair patent andirons.

No. 513. Allen Wood & Brother, Delaware co. Pa.—specimen imitation Russia sheet iron.

No. 528. Manning & Lee, Baltimore, Md.—11 cards hardware.

No. 531. J. R. Anderson, Richmond, Va.—32 lbs. samples of raw iron.

No. 542. John D. Dale, Lansingburg, N. Y.—1 pair platform scales.

No. 543. Ammidon & Son, Southbridge, Mass.—3 specimens steel spectacles.

No. 545. E. Holmes, Stoughton, Mass.—1 case cast steel boot and shoe tools.

No. 550. Tingle & Sugden, Pittsburg, Pa.—1 box of files.

No. 555. Alexander Turnbull, Baltimore, Md., for H. W. Butterworth, Philadelphia, Pa.—American tinned iron, and cotton cans for machinery.

No. 558. James T. Watson, Baltimore, Md.—specimens of wire seives.

No. 561. Joseph Saxton, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 specimens of medal rolling; 3 specimens of electrotypeings, and 1 specimen of medal turnings.

No. 571. L. D. Badger, Boston, Mass.—1 vapor apparatus; 1 rotary machine for backing books, and shower baths.

No. 572. J. Russell & Co. New-York City—1 box cutlery.

No. 581. Tingle & Sugden, Pittsburg, Pa.—3 cards files.

No. 587. Crocker, Brothers & Co. Taunton, Mass., E. Pratt & Brother, Baltimore, Md. agents—specimens of sheathing copper nails, sheathing copper, sheet zinc, copper cylinders for calico printing, copper tubes and bolts.

No. 589. Wm. Field & Co. Providence, R. I.—1 box steel ware.

No. 590. J. T. Farwell & Co. Fitchburg, Mass.—2 cards scythes.

No. 595. Elisha Tilden, Chesterfield, Mass.—6 dozen Quinebaug scythe stones.

No. 596. J. S. Stafford & Co. Cummington, Mass.—6 dozen Quinebaug scythe stones.

No. 597. E. Jordan, Pittsfield, Mass.—6 dozen Quinebaug scythe stones.

No. 601. J. T. Ames, Cabotsville, Mass.—1 pair scales.

No. 624. L. Stedson Bates, Boston, Mass.—1 shower bath.

No. 636. Enoch Robinson, Boston, Mass.—1 box bank and door locks, greatly admired.

No. 642. Uriah Wells, Petersburg, Va.—½ dozen axes.

No. 643. Littlefield, Hattrich & Shannon, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case locks, etc.

No. 650. Sampsons, Clements & Co. Shebbourne's Falls, Mass.—1 box of butcher's and cook's knives.

No. 655. C. Prenott & Servier, Philadelphia, Pa—bell springs, etc.

No. 657. R. E. Horner, Princeton, N. J.—2 Jones' patent metal locks; 2 Jones' double jarred patent spring padlocks, and 4 travelling securities.

No. 658. C. E. Wetmore & Co. Baltimore, Md.—2 cases of cutlery.

No. 662. Old Colony Iron Co. Taunton, Mass.—specimens of cut nails.

No. 664. J. H. Morse & Sons, Shelburn Falls.—1 box specimens scythes.

No. 686. Hall & Alrichs, Wilmington, Del.—front door and mortice locks.

No. 703. Campbell & Coyle, Washington, D. C.—4 specimens sand stones.

No. 705. Gifford & Chase, Fall River. Mass.—6 molasses gates.

No. 713. Benjamin & Broomhead, New Haven, Conn.—specimens files and rasps.

No. 721. E. Merritt & Sons, Weymouth, Mass.—18 shoe hammers.

No. 728. Rochus Heinisch, Newark, N. J.—glass case containing scissors and shears for tailors.

No. 729. E. Crane & Co. Schenectady, N. Y.—specimens screws.

No. 735. Rowland & Brothers, Baltimore, Md.—specimens saws.

No. 744. F. Dickinson & Co. Higganum, Mass.—specimens edge tools.

No. 773. Morgan & Abell, Springfield, Mass.—1 box locks.

No. 776. Thomas C. Moore, New-York—brass and copper wire cloth.

No. 782. Crosby & Coburn, Lowell, Mass.—1 improved bank lock.

No. 783. Reed & Barton, Taunton, Mass.—1 box Britannia ware.

No. 785. Mr. Keith, Baltimore—1 case knives and forks.

No. 790. Mitchel Gould, Newark, N. J.—1 box specimens stair rods.

No. 798. Mr. Faver, Louisville, Stark co. Ohio—various instruments, such as vices, nippers, tongs, shears, dividers, etc. well and ingeniously wrought.

No. 799. Jaudons & Mason, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 kegs "Saukinah nails."

Stoves and Iron Ware.

No. 37. Moses Pond & Co., Boston, Mass.—1 cooking range, etc.

No. 127. Morris, Tasker & Morris, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 boxes specimens castings and steam pipe.

No. 178. Savery & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—Lot of hollow ware and box iron castings.

No. 185. Joseph Simms & Sons, Baltimore, Md.—2 radiators.

No. 201. Thomas Durell, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 specimen stove.

No. 217. H. & F. Stimpson, Boston, Mass., by W. H. Harrover, Washington, D. C.—1 specimen cooking range and fixtures.

No. 219. G. W. Walker, New-York, by W. H. Harrover, Washington, D. C.—1 hot air furnace.

No. 221. Wm. P. Cresson, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case containing specimens ovens, spiders, pots, and kettles.

No. 228. Brown & Eyre, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 stove.

No. 230. Morris & Jones, Philadelphia, Pa.—6 sheets boiler iron, 18 bars ditto, and 3 bundles round and square ditto.

No. 236. Orrick & Campbell, Philadelphia, Pa.—3 sheets boiler iron.

No. 250. W. & B. Douglass, Middletown, Ct.—4 specimens cast iron pumps; prices from $4 75 to $6 50.

No. 266. Morris, Tasker & Morris, Philadelphia, Pa.—Iron tubes for steam, gas, water, etc.; also, butt hinges, etc.

No. 277. Snow & Parker, Meriden, Ct.—1 cast iron pump.

No. 290. D. B. Small & Co. Baltimore, Md.—1 steam boiler and fixtures.

No. 321. James Skirving, Washington, D. C.—1 cast iron bath tub; 1 cast iron vase; 1 cast iron chair; 1 cauldron and furnace.

No. 339. Etowah Iron Works, Cass co.,

Geo., (Cooper & Stoup, proprietors.)—4 specimens bar and pig iron.

No. 384. James McGregor, New-York city.—1 ventilating stove.

No. 406. James Robb, Lewiston, Pa.—2 cooking stoves.

No. 444. Hayward, Fox & Co., Baltimore, Md.—Cooking range; hot air furnace; cast iron chair, and large copper boiler.

No. 445. Alfred H. Reip, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens bake ovens and roasters.

No. 448. Campbell & Coyle, agents for W. T. Tuckerman, New-York state.—Specimens various bundles and bars Ulster iron.

No. 480. D. G. Happersell, Baltimore, Md.—1 cooking stove.

No. 482. Thos. E. Baden, Washington, D. C.—2 revolving waffle irons and 1 patent pump.

No. 583. J. J. Greenough, Washington city.—1 cooking stove.

No. 598. Stanley & Co. Baltimore, Md., Woodward & King, Washington city, agents.—1 cooking stove and 1 coal burner.

No. 600. Woodward & King, Washington city.—1 cooking stove and 2 soda fountains.

No. 623. H. & F. Stimpson, Boston, Mass.—1 cooking range and fixtures.

No. 625. M. Fisher & Wm. Martin, jr., Newport, Me.—1 anvil and 4 parallel chain braces.

No. 626. W. H. Whitely, Boston, Mass.—Kitchen range and appurtenances; closet and steamers, and bath boiler.

No. 641. Barrows & Morgan, Baltimore, Md.—Hot air furnace and cooking range.

No. 647. Hayward, Fox & Co., Baltimore, Md.—3 silver plated registers for furnaces.

No. 668. John R. Triplett, Richmond, Va.—3 sheets of puddle flue iron.

No. 682. Wilson Balderston, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens of wire work.

No. 689. Curtis & Hand, Philadelphia, from the Henry Clay furnace, Reading, Pa.—1 pattern card castings, and 2 specimens pig iron.

No. 695. S. P. Sexton, Baltimore, Md.—3 cast iron stoves.

No. 698. Sillman, Brooks & Co. Chester, Ct.—Carriage bolts.

No. 702. F. B. Dean, jr., Bottetourt co., Va.—2 pigs iron, from Roaring Run Furnace.

No. 704. Horace Gray, Boston, Mass.,—8 bars iron.

No. 738. New-England Iron Company, Providence, R. I.—Specimen of Railroad iron.

No. 750. F. B. Dean, Bottetourt co., Va.—Specimen of iron, from the Roaring Run Furnace.

No. 756. J. P. E. Stanley, Baltimore, Md.—1 self-regulating stove.

No. 760½. Fisher & Marlin, Newport, Me.—1 anvil and 4 parallel vices.

Silks, Clothing, and Fancy Articles of every description.

No. 1. Christian Seeman, Frederick, Md.—Specimens of military gloves.

No. 72. George Rapp, Economy, Pa.—7 specimens silk goods.

No. 91. Charles Goodyear, New-York.—6 cases India rubber & shirred suspenders.

No. 145. F. V. Krug & Co. Philadelphia, Penn.—1 package containing ladies' and gent's kid gloves; prices from $5 50 to $9 per dozen.

No. 146. Moses W. Hammond, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package fancy articles, consisting of specimen rolling hoops, jumping ropes, etc., etc.

No. 149. S. Winner, Philadelphia, Pa.—An assortment of specimens combs, consisting of every variety side, dressing, pocket, high top, etc., etc.

No. 152. Wakefield Mills, Germantown, Pa., Thomas R. Fisher, ditto.—1 package containing silk hose, shirts, drawers, night caps, scarfs, hoods, etc.

No. 153. C. Leibrich, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package socks.

No. 167. S. Levin, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package specimen suspenders of different qualities and patterns.

No. 220. Solomon Doebelley, East Kensington, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 lot specimen suspenders, of various descriptions and prices.

No. 274. Julius Pratt & Co., Meriden, Ct.—Specimens of ivory combs.

No. 310. Jackson & Grey, Louisville, Ky., by Charles L. Thomason, do. do.—Specimens of sewing silks and handkerchiefs.

No. 312. John Hodges, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case fancy goods.

No. 340. C. Brett & Son, Baltimore, Md.—11 specimens shirts.

No. 372. John Ashton, jr., Philadelphia, Pa.—1 coat with patent pockets; 3 bathing dresses, and 3 detached pockets.

No. 397. A. C. Van Epps, New-York city.—Specimens of American silks, consisting of hose, gloves, handkerchiefs, dress patterns, scarfs, etc., etc.

No. 451. Young & Disney, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens of combs.

No. 455. C. A. Walborn, Philadelphia, Pa.—Specimens stocks, shirts, and dressing gowns.

No. 456. G. R. Correy, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case gloves.

No. 470. John W. Gill, Wheeling, Va.—Specimens manufactured silk.

No. 471. S. B. T. Caldwell, Loudon co., Va.—Specimens sewing and reeled silk, and cocoons.

No. 493. Davis, Morey & Co., Ipswich, Mass.—Woollen and silk under vests, plain white and fancy colors.

No. 518. Wm. M. Morrison, Washington, D. C.—Specimens raw silk.

No. 579. Fletcher & Brothers, Providence, R. I.—1 box corset and boot lacings, braids, and wicks.

No. 654. Thomas White, Brooklyn, N. Y.—1 box straw bonnets.

No. 678. Messenger & Brother, Canton, Mass.—Six pounds sewing silk, various colors.

No. 717. D. W. Canfield, New-York.—1 case shirts.

No. 722. Hutchinson & Runyon, Newark, N. J., and New-York.—Goodyear's patent suspenders.

No. 740. Northampton Association, Northampton, Mass.—Specimens sewing silk.

No. 741. Joseph Conant & Co., Northampton, Mass.—Specimens sewing silk.

No. 772. Paterson Silk Factory, Paterson, N. J.—1 case silks, great variety.

Hats, Caps, &c.

No. 155. Brooks & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—Handsome assortment of hats, of various descriptions.

No. 210. Bacon & Hallowell, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case hats, assorted specimens.

No. 222. Jenkins, Gorham & Co., Barre, Worcester co., Mass.; by S. T. Russell & Co., agents, New-York.—30 specimens palm leaf hats.

No. 268. Charles Oakford, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case hats, caps, and military chapeaux.

No. 289. Stevens & Emmons, Washington, D. C.—16 specimens hats, chapeaux, and caps.

No. 302. Madame Dyveanirs, Washington, D. C.—1 case specimens hats, caps, etc.

No. 345. Wm. B. Todd, Washington, D. C.—1 case specimens hats and caps of every variety.

No. 351. W. F. Seymour, Georgetown, D. C.—A number of specimens of hats and caps, of every variety.

No. 375. Elmes & Seaver, Baltimore, Md.—Case containing 6 specimens hats.

No. 402. John Maguire, Washington city.—4 specimens hats.

No. 509. Beebe & Costar, New-York.—1 case hats and caps.

No. 591. J. Hunt, Baltimore, Md.—1 glass case containing 4 hats.

No. 794. Hay & Agens, Newark, N. J.—2 specimens hats.

No. 795. T. C. Ward & Co., Newark, N. J.—4 specimens tarpaulin hats.

Furniture, Upholstery, &c.

No. 2. Quantin & Lutz, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 arm chair, $55; 1 common chair, $25; 1 book rack, $60; 1 music case holder, $20; 1 ladies' writing desk, $65.

No. 30. J. Baker & Sons, Hingham, Mass.—A number of handsome specimens of upholstery, consisting of fringes, bullion tassels, gimp, frog-holders, etc., etc.

No. 40. Mrs. Hall's Pupils, Baltimore, Md.—Gothic mahogany chair, $100.

No. 156. C. H. & J. F. White, Philadelphia, Pa.—4 boxes richly finished furniture.

No. 162. J. & A. Crout, Philadelphia, Pa., domestic cabinet-ware manufacturers—9 packages, containing handsome specimens of domestic cabinet-ware.

No. 192. Ladies of Bethlehem, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 handsome embroidered chair.

No. 233. Frost and Wright, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 couch and spring mattress.

No. 239. Crawford Riddle, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 handsome set of chamber furniture, made of rosewood, gothic pattern, valued at $8,000.

No. 240. T. Tennant, Baltimore, Md.—1 spring mattress.

No. 247. C. N. Robinson, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 rich, ornamented, gilt framed mantel glass.

No. 249½. H. Duhring, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case specimens trimmings, consisting of laces, fringes, gimps, tassels, etc., etc.

No. 284. Jacob Free, Baltimore, Md.—1 specimen window blinds.

No 285. Howell & Brothers, Philadelphia, Pa.—Handsome specimens of paper hangings.

No. 288. Wm. S. Birch, Baltimore, Md.—Handsome specimens paper hangings.

No. 362. J. D. Edwards & Co., Elizabethtown, N. J.—Floor and furniture oil cloths, fine specimens.

No. 403. Evans and Watson, Philadelphia, Pa., by Joseph Crout, agent, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 refrigerators.

No. 490. Joseph H. Nevett, Washington, D. C.—1 refrigerator.

No. 527. J. K. Boyd, Washington, D. C.—Fancy, blue velvet, and therapeutic chairs.

No. 556. E. S. Arnold, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 roll of oil cloths, fine specimens.

No. 592. Isaac Pugh & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—10 samples paper hangings.

No. 594. James Curry, Philadelphia, Pa.—9 samples paper hangings.

No. 593. Cotter Bride, Baltimore, Md.—3 rustic shades.

No. 608. Cotter Bride, Baltimore, Md.—6 specimens rustic work.

No. 663. Cornelius Briggs, Boston, Mass.—1 patent centre extension table.

No. 684. Geo. W. Dunn, Washington, D. C.—1 chair, looking-glass and frame, and white oak veneers.

No. 688. Mr. Mott, New-York—1 ornamental garden vase.

No. 699. R. B. Willis, Boston, Mass.—Sofas and chairs.

No. 706. L. Woobery, Manchester, Mass.—1 sideboard and commode.

No. 736. Jacob Stake, Jr., Baltimore, Md.—1 water cooler.

No. 747. Steele & Co., New-York—1 box feather brushes.

No. 748. H. Magne, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens of buckets.

No. 762. John W. Browning, Baltimore, Md.—2 patent refrigerators.

No. 765. Mrs. Jane Mary Taylor, Orange co., Va.—2 specimens fly brushes.

No. 791. David Austin, Boston, Mass.—4 cotton mattresses.

No. 792. F. D. Ellis & Co., Boston, Mass.—2 cotton mattresses.

No. 793. William Bosson, Boston, Mass.—1 cotton mattress.

Silver Ware and Jewelry.

No. 131. Wm. Wilson, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 packages, containing a rich assortment of specimens silver ware, consisting, for the most part, as follows: 5 sets plate, plain and richly chased, differing in shape and pattern, prices varying from $675 to $405; 5 pitchers, some richly chased, prices varying from $200 to $50; also table, tea, dessert, salt and mustard spoons, varying in their prices, table from $25 to $40, tea from $8 to $16; sauce and soup ladles, fish and butter knives, sugar tongs, etc. etc.

No. 371. John Bradbury, Newburyport, Mass.—3 cases specimens gold and silver thimbles.

No. 424. H. & W. Dubosque, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case silver ornaments.

No. 463. Robert Kezworth, Washington city—Specimens of gold and silver ware.

No. 465. Andrew E. Warner, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens silver ware; also a specimen of engraving on gold, representing Monument Square, very handsomely finished.

No. 557. W. J. Mullen, Philadelphia, Pa.—24 gold watch dials and 1 case.

No. 610. Samuel Kirk, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens silver ware.

Saddlery, Harness, Carriages, &c.

No. 66. Jones & Quigg, Pittsburg, Pa.—1 set carriage boxes; 1 pair carriage springs.

No. 73. John Hartshorn, Newark, N. J.—oak and hickory spokes, specimens.

No. 135. A. L. Hickey, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 specimen travelling trunk.

No. 159. Robert W. Lewis, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package, containing harness.

No. 167. S. Levin, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package specimens cotton and worsted harness webbings, different varieties.

No. 187. S. F. Summers, Philadelphia, Pa.—12 specimens trunks.

No. 194. J. Unrah, Philadelphia, Pa.—3 specimens trunks—at $40, $20, and $8.

No. 256. Ogle & Watson, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 coach and harness; 1 phaeton.

No. 272. S. & T. H. Hunt, Baltimore, Md.—3 cases, containing specimens trunks, saddles, single and double harness, bridles, martingales, etc. etc.

No. 291. Jenkins & Lily, Baltimore, Md.—specimens harness and saddlery; consisting of harnesses differently mounted; ladies' Spanish and quilted saddles, reins, girths, snaffles, etc. etc.

No. 358. Lacey & Phillips, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box specimens saddlery.

No. 461. Wm. R. Coulson, Baltimore, Md.—specimens cowhide whips.

No. 464. A. M. Martin, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 pair medical saddle-bags.

No. 499. Hughson & Vail, Baltimore, Md.—specimens saddlery and harness.

No. 511. Wm. Marshall, Washington City.—1 rockaway, 1 Clarence carriage, and 1 buggy wagon.

No. 527. J. K. Boyd, Washington, D. C.—3 cases carpet bags.

No. 538. Henry Dunlap, Baltimore, Md.—1 two-seat wagon.

No. 640. Charles F. Sangster & Co., Georgetown, D. C.—ladies' hunting saddle.

No. 667. Mr. Hunt, Baltimore, Md.—1 leather trunk.

No. 763. Coleman, Haleman & Co., Pittsburg, Pa.—1 set coach springs.

No. 780. Samuel Childs, Baltimore, Md.—1 coach.

No. 784. George Dunn, Newark, N. J.—1 sulky, buggy, and coach iron, and 5 carriage boxes.

Boots, Shoes, and Leather.

No. 28. N. Hayward & Co., Lisbon, Ct., Noyes & Co., agents, Washington City, D. C.—number of fine specimens of gum elastic shoes.

No. 56. George S. Adler, Philadelphia, Pa.—4 specimens morocco and kid.

No. 111. Prattsville and Windham

Tanneries, by Latham, Corse & Co., agents, New-York.—6 sides leather.

No. 154. Wm. Ryan, Philadelphia, Pa. —2 packages specimens shoes.

No. 181. Robert Hutchinson, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 bundles specimens leather, containing skirting and calfskin.

G. & W. Dialogue, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box specimen of rivetted hose for fire companies.

No. 198. J. Gamble & Sons, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box, containing Tampico and Madras dyed morocco, prices $9 and $15 per doz.

No. 204. Charles B. Williams, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 bales specimens sole leather.

No. 216. Henry Herth, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 glass case of boots, neatly finished.

No. 334. Lewis Fairbrother, Pawtucket, R. I.—specimens string leather, 13 sides.

No. 350. John Kunkle, Frederick, Md. specimens leather.

No. 365. Wm. Dukehart, Baltimore, Md.—3 pieces specimens hose, and 2 hose pipes.

No. 385. Francis Shriver, Westminster, Md.—1 specimen bundle leather, and 6 sides.

No. 389. Doyle & McNeely, Philadelphia, Pa.—specimens leather.

No. 425. Ramsburg & Ebert, Georgetown, D. C.—specimens of buckskin, including gloves, gauntlets, suspenders, piano covers, etc. etc.

No. 447. Henry C. Locher, Lancaster, Pa.—lasts of different sizes.

No. 475. John Mills, Washington City —1 pair specimen boots.

No. 492½. Wm. Kumble, New-York.—4 specimens of machine leather banding, an article possessing the very desirable property of running straight when in use, a property that is well understood by machinists. These bands are rivetted and cemented and stretched by machinery; they are made from the very best oak leather.

No. 524. Francis Dane, Danvers, Mass. —9 pairs men's brogans.

No. 530. Dukehart & Co., Baltimore, Md. —3 pieces hose; 2 buckets and 1 halter.

No. 539. Thomas Creaser, Washington, D. C.—4 pairs ladies' boots and slippers.

No. 549. John Thornby, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case of India rubber shoes.

No. 566. Leonard Beukart, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 pair specimen boots.

No. 575. S. S. Holton, Boston, Mass.—1 case boots.

No. 582. Thorn & Co., Baltimore, Md. —16 cases specimen shoes.

No. 612. J. P. Young, Philadelphia, Pa.—6 pair boots.

No. 627. George C. Peirce, Salem, Mass.—3 doz. sheep skin mats.

No. 648. Towner, Dunlap & Co., Baltimore, Md.—1 box of picker string and lace leather.

No. 653. John Thornley, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case of gum shoes.

No. 694. Z. Pratt, Prattsville, N. Y.—6 sides leather, made from Buenos Ayres and New-York hides.

No. 711. Fitler & Hunter, Philadelphia, Pa.—specimens of morocco and kid.

No. 719. John F Ray, Boston, Mass.—1 box boots and shoes.

No. 789. J. & R. Ware, Newark, N. J. —7 specimens of leather.

No. 794½. Chas. H. Speer, Newark, N. J.—3 pairs boots.

Umbrellas, Parasols and Canes.

No. 157. Wm. A. Brown, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package umbrellas, etc.

No. 206. Wm. A. Brown, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box specimens umbrellas, etc. consisting of a general assortment of articles as follows: American silk, mantua and American gingham umbrellas, with every variety of handle, varying in prices from $3.50 to $10.00; sun shades, parasols and parasolettes, frilled, fringed, etc. with plain and embossed handles, varying in prices from $1.12 to $11.00.

No. 404. Francis Beehler, Baltimore, Md.—An assortment of umbrellas, parasols and canes, of every variety and pattern, differing in price and quality.

No. 432. Asch & Pincus, Philadelphia, Pa., White & Brother, agents—14 specimens of umbrellas.

No. 523. Wm. H. Richardson, Philadelphia, Pa.—specimens of umbrellas and parasols.

Stationery, Printing and Books.

No. 26. R. & A. H. Hubbard, Norwich, Conn.—12 specimens writing and other papers, prices from $1.12½ to 8.00.

No. 98. P. H. Vandervoort, New-York —1 specimen card of fancy wood types, manufactured by George F. Nesbitt, New-York.

No. 110. James C. Crane, Richmond, Va.—2 reams of printing paper, at $4.00; 2 reams of envelope paper, at $3.50; 2 reams of superfine medium paper at $3.50; 2 reams of number two ruled cap paper, at $1.50; 2 reams of common straw wrapping paper, at 45 cts.

No. 133. Samuel Taylor, Philadelphia, Pa., Pennsylvania Slate Co. Slateford, Pa. —2 boxes specimens slates; 1 school, and 1 house slate.

No. 158. Thomas & Charles Konigmacher, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package paper of various kinds.

No. 166. Uriah Hunt & Sons, Philadelphia, Pa., by R. Farnham, agent, Washington, D. C.—1 package specimen books, handsomely bound Turkey morocco, muslin, etc.

No. 169. J. B. Lippencott & Co. Phila. Pa.—2 cases of specimen books, consisting of a number of handsomely bound volumes from their establishment, in velvet and Turkey morocco, with gold and silver mountings.

No. 171. Speel & Donohue, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case blank books, comprising every variety of paper and binding.

No. 231. Lewis J. Cohen, New-York, by F. Taylor, Washington, D. C.—samples of playing cards.

No. 252. Gaskill & Copper, Philadelphia, Pa.—Impressions from die cut for Harpers' family bible—a handsome specimen.

No. 343. Alexander Robb, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 book specimen type.

No. 418. Presbyterian Board of Publication, Philadelphia, Pa., by T. W. Denham, Washington, D. C.—14 copies of Pilgrim's Progress, different sizes, prices and patterns.

No. 426. Levi Brown, Brooklyn, N. Y., by Wm. Fischer, Washington, D. C.—1 case gold and diamond pointed pens.

No. 427. Wm. Fischer, Washington, D. C.—1 case stationery, containing a variety of articles.

No. 429. W. Y. Wilson, Deep River, Mass.—specimens of gold diamond pointed pens.

No. 472. George W. Matthews, Carroll co. Md.—1 ream cornstalk wrapping paper.

No. 491. Fielding Lucas, jr. Baltimore, Md.—2 Flora's Dictionaries, handsomely bound, and specimens printing type.

No. 510. Lea & Blanchard, Philadelphia, Pa.—5 volumes Exploring Expedition, with atlas.

No. 580. Towner, Dunlap & Co. Baltimore, Md.—gum elastic paper holders.

No. 541. F. Knight, Washington, D. C.—6 copies Washington's letters on agriculture.

No. 552. Wm. Munroe, Concord, Mass.—2 cases of lead pencils.

No. 586. Decamp & Tredler, Washington City—specimens for binding Harpers' pictorial bible.

No. 603. Chelsea Manufacturing Co. Norwich, Conn., R. Farnham, Washington City, agent—specimens fine printing paper.

No. 617. Cary & Brother, New-York—specimens ornamental show card printing.

No. 630. James Dyer, Boston, Mass.—1 box containing 100 letter holders.

No. 639. Washburn & Robinson, Taunton, Mass.—1 box premium pen holders.

No. 645. James French, Boston, Mass.—1 package pens, ink and copy books.

No. 679. S. A. Mitchell, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 maps.

No. 697. Harrison Hall, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 copies Wilson's ornithology.

No. 709. Samuel C. Mann, Boston, Mass.—3 reams marble paper.

No. 724. John Murphy, Baltimore, Md.—specimens of binding and printing.

No. 768. John Cain & Co. Rutland, Vt.—1 box lead pencils.

No. 781. Maynard & Noyes, Boston, Mass.—1 box writing ink.

Lamps, Chandeliers, &c. &c.

No. 150. Cornelius & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—9 packages, containing a handsome assortment of lamps and chandeliers; comprising, four light gothic olive gas chandeliers; six light rich olive gas chandeliers; candle, and oil chandeliers; also handsomely finished rich candelabras, astral and solar lamps; bouquet holders, candlesticks, etc., etc.

No. 218. John W. Henry, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case specimens lard lamps.

No. 407. W. H. Starr, New-York city. 14 specimens lamps, differing in style and finish.

No. 467. Philip Murray, Baltimore, Md.—1 patent candlestick.

No. 661. B. Murphy & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box pine oil lamps.

No. 666. H. N. Hooper & Co., Boston, Mass.—Lamps, girandoles, and their appurtenances.

No. 737. Martin W. Emmons, New-York city.—1 gothic chandelier.

No. 760. Roberts, Eagles & Co., Newark, N. J.—3 specimens coach lamps, on an improved plan.

Cannon, all Military Articles, and Trimmings.

No. 19. William Pinchin, Philadelphia, Pa.—A large assortment of military goods, consisting of splendid military caps, spears, holster tips, cap plates, infantry and dragoon trimmings, breast and waist plates, epauletts, etc., etc.

No. 112. John Krider, Philadelphia, Pa.—An assortment of highly finished specimens of military goods, consisting of single and double barreled guns; ducking and fowling pieces; duelling pistols with fixtures complete, in mahogany cases; silver mounted and plain double and single rifles; muskets, etc., etc.

No. 116. Wm. H. Horstman, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box military goods, containing a number of specimens of naval and military caps and hats, plumes, and other regalia; fringes, gimps, holsters, sword, and sword belts; sashes, tassels, etc., etc. Also, coach lace and other fixings belonging to coaches; together with Odd Fellows' regalia, etc., etc.

No. 163. E. K. Tryon, Philadelphia, Pa.—4 packages, specimens military articles; single and double barrel shot guns, plain, and gold and silver mounted. prices $4 to $150; rifles, with brass, iron, steel, and silver mountings, $6 to $125; pistols, revolving, duelling, and Armstrong's, with cases and apparatus, various prices; flasks, powder and liquor; also, shot pouches, at various prices.

No. 192. H. Korn, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 trunk and 1 small package of military trimmings, containing an assortment of sashes, epauletts, etc., etc.

No. 232. F. W. Widman, Philadelphia, Pa., by E. Owen & Co., Washington, D. C.—Case specimens army swords and naval and revenue ornaments.

No. 283. Thomas Tyrer, Richmond, Va.—4 specimens guns.

No. 303. Samuel Sutherland, Richmond, Va.—3 specimens rifles.

No. 354. Merchants' Shot Tower Company, Baltimore. Md.—1 case specimen different numbers shot.

No. 390. Capt. A. Mordecai, U. S. Arsenal, Washington city.—1 ball press and trimmer.

No. 391. M. W. Fisher, U. S. Arsenal, Washington city—Percussion cap charger.

No. 398. J. T. Ames, Cabotville, Mass.—Specimens of plain and ornamented swords,! cutlery, brass cannon, pistols, etc., all of good quality.

No. 441. Doctor Chas. T. Jackson, Boston, Mass.—1 miniature cannon and carriage, made from American tin, copper, and zinc ores.

No. 477. Joseph Davis, Philadelphia, Pa.—Specimens odd fellows' and masons' regalia.

No. 569. J. W. & E. D. Stokes, Philadelphia, Pa.—Specimens of odd fellows' and masons' regalia.

No. 628. H. P. Fairbanks, Boston, Mass. from Clinton co., Lancaster, Mass.—1 case coach lace.

No. 687. Wm. Thomas, Baltimore, Md.—2 pivot guns.

No. 799. J. W. Gordon, Guildford co., N. C.—1 rifle.

Chemicals, Soaps, Perfumery, Groceries, &c., &c.

No. 1. Christian Leeman, Frederick, Md.—Specimens of glue, price 15c. per lb. On sale.

No. 34. Walter Baker, Dorchester, Mass., by F. & A. H. Dodge, agents, Georgetown, D. C.—Specimens of chocolate, cocoa, paste, etc.

No. 45. Francis Hyde, Baltimore, Md.—2 boxes specimens fancy soap and perfumery.

No. 53. George Felix, M. D., Pittsburg, Pa.—1 can extract coffee; 48 tin cans, do. do.

No. 60. T. H. Nevin & Co., Pittsburg, Pa.—1 specimen of red lead; 1 do. do. white do.

No. 61. John H. Sanner, Baltimore, Md.—2 specimens cigars.

No. 106. A. Seemuller, Baltimore, Md.—3 specimens cigars, made chiefly from Florida tobacco.

No. 107. Smith & Curtlett, Steam Soap and Candle Works, Baltimore, Md.—1 specimen of adamantine candles.

No. 109. Van Deventer & Talmage, New-York—1 gross 3 sizes blacking, of a superior quality, prices $3, $4, and $5.

No. 125. Wetherill & Brother, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 boxes chemicals, containing specimens of chrome yellow, red and white lead, Pruss. blue, calomel, soda, etc., etc.

No. 126. Farr, Powers & Weightman, Pa.—Specimens of chemicals, consisting of corrosive sublimate, flores martiales, morphia, and its salts; sulphate, acetate, muriate, quinia sulphas, red and white precipitate, Rochelle salts, cryst and powdered; seidlitz mixture, tartaric acid, tartar emetic, calomel, etc., etc.

No. 134. Nicholas Lenning & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—6 boxes chemicals.

No. 138. From John W. Downing, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 barrel clarified sugar, made on Orange Grove Plantation, Louisiana, by Thomas Morgan, price 10c. per pound.

No. 139. James S. Mason, manufacturer, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case specimens ink and blacking.

No. 142. Eugene Roussell, Philadelphia, Pa.—12 packages, assorted specimens of shaving and other soaps, extracts, and perfumery in general.

No. 148. Rodman Wharton, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box white lead, specimen.

No. 160. James Keefe, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 package specimens maccaroni and vermicelli.

No. 164. Rosengarter and Dennis, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box chemicals.

No. 172. C. J. Fell & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—10 cases specimens mustard and chocolate.

No. 174. J. Tyson, Jr., Baltimore, Md.—3 boxes specimens chemicals.

No. 176. David Jayne, M. D., Philadelphia, Pa.—Specimens of his medicines, etc.

No. 193. Kurlbaum & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box specimens chemicals.

No. 175. Harrison & Brother, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case specimens chemicals, consisting of alum, lead, copperas, etc.

No. 179. E. P. Maule, Philadelphia, Pa. —1 box specimens chemicals.

No. 182. H. P. & W. C. Taylor, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 case specimens fancy soaps.

No. 186. Thomas G. Little, Baltimore, Md.—1 box specimen cigars.

No. 188. A. & J. Brown & Brother, Baltimore, Md.—1 box specimen fine chewing tobacco.

No. 195. Mordecai Lewis & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—2 boxes specimens of white lead and of acetate of lead.

No. 196. Thomas Mattock, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box, specimens of lamp black.

No. 237. Collins and Bullock, Baltimore, Md.—1 barrel buffalo glue; 1 barrel do. No. 1. do.

No. 249. Christian Schrack, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box, containing various spemens of varnishes.

No. 253. John B. Budd, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 barrel specimen refined sugar.

No. 258. Morse and Winslow, New-York city—Adamant pearl light candles, a superior article both in quality and finish, made of lard and tallow, with braided wicks. These candles, on account of their hardness, are suitable for the hottest climates, and are every way an excellent article.

No. 261. Johnson & Co., New-York city, by C. Holt, Jr. do.—Specimens of perfumery, consisting of colognes, extracts, soaps, etc.; also 1 case brushes.

No. 270. Hancock and Mann, Baltimore, Md.—1 box candles.

No. 282. Sam. and P. T. Ellicott, Baltimore, Md.—6 cases specimens chemicals.

No. 286. Joseph R. Quinter, Washington city—1 barrel specimen of glue.

No. 295. Joseph S. Levering & Co., Philadelphia, Pa., by Simms & Son, agents, Washington, D. C.—Specimens of loaf sugar, etc., etc.

No. 308. Hobson Johns, Danville, Va.—1 box specimen tobacco.

No. 309. C. Wiseman, Baltimore, Md. —Specimens paste blacking.

No. 325. O. Hungerford, Waterton, Mass.—Specimens maple sugar.

No. 331. Alexander Harrison, Philadelphia, Pa.—Specimens of Columbian ink.

No. 355. A. G. Cole & Co., Baltimore, Md.—1 case chemicals, and 1 keg white lead.

No. 370. M. S. Morman, Baltimore, Md.—1 specimen box tobacco.

No. 379. James Dixon, agent, New-York—1 box rock and roll brimstone.

No. 409. M. W. Burrows, Lexington, Ky.—5 specimens mustard, sold by Samuel D. McCullough, Lexington, Ky.

No. 411. New-York and Saugerties White Lead Works, New-York, O. Whittlesey, agent—Specimens white lead.

No. 419. William Beuhler, Baltimore, Md.—1 box American cigars.

No. 461. William R. Coulson, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens of glue, emery, cloth and eagle glass paper.

No. 484. Wm. H. Winter, Washington, D. C.—4 boxes tobacco.

No. 497. E. Lyon, New-York—Specimens gum shellac.

No. 548. John Horncastle, Dorchester, Mass.—2 dozen blacking.

No. 553. Abner Songer, Danvers, Mass. —1 box mustard.

No. 631. Courtnay, Montell & Co., Baltimore, Md.—1 box of tobacco.

No. 651. Jeffries & Catterfield, New-York.—1 case of brimstone.

No. 652. Potter & Colgate, New-York —1 box white lead.

No. 673. Brown, Chapin & Whiton, Boston, Mass.—3 boxes japanned blacking.

No. 675. A. Sanger, Boston, Mass.—4 boxes mustard.

No. 690. Steven W. Wykoff, Parish of St. Landre, La.—specimen of Louisiana sugar crop 1845, very superior.

No. 716. Peter Cooper, New-York City. —1 box refined American isinglass.

No. 731. J. Henry Harrison, Richmond, Va.—1 box tobacco.

No. 743. Osgood & Rand, Concord, N. H.—125 lbs. fancy lozenges.

No. 751. James D. Armstrong & S. Thornton, Baltimore, Md.—4 boxes segars.

No. 752. Walter Nichols, Newport, R. I.—specimen of watch spring oil.

No. 770. Eliphalet Davis, Cambridge, Mass.—1 box shaving, toilet, and other soaps.

No. 777. Dickinson & Shrewsbury, Canawha, Va.—specimens of salt, 18 cents per bushel at the works.

No. 796. A. Gunn, Harlem, N. Y.—1 bottle of indigo.

China, Glass, Queen's Ware, and Stone Ware.

No. 42. New-England Glass Company. —A large and handsome assortment of every variety of glass, cut, pressed, and plain; also, chemical and apothecaries ware.

No. 64. Bennett & Brothers, Pittsburg, Pa.—14 pieces stone ware.

No. 65. Harker & Taylor, Pittsburg, Pa.—40 pieces earthenware.

No. 70. Boston and Sandwich Glass Company, Boston, Denning Jarvis, agent, Boston, Mass.—A number of beautiful specimens of cut, pressed, and plain glass; containing articles of every color and shape, marked at moderate prices.

No. 130. Coffin, Hay & Bowdle, Philadelphia, Pa.—27 boxes window glass, containing specimens of all sizes plain and plate glass, some of which is 30 inches by 40 inches in size.

No. 142. Dyottville Glass Works, Kensington, Philadelphia, by Eugene Roussell, Philadelphia, Pa., —3 packages, assorted specimens of variegated and plain glass ware.

No. 143. J. R. & F. W. Marston, Baltimore, Md.—2 packages of glass ware, from Jacob Andrews, Baltimore, manufacturer, consisting of tumblers, wine glasses, decanters, etc., for dinner set.

No. 147. Porter, Shreeve & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—7 packages, different sizes specimens of window glass; 2 packages different size specimens of glass bottles; made at Windsor Works, Camden co., N. J.

No. 168. Bakewell, Pears & Co., Pittsburg, Pa.—1 package, specimens glass ware; consisting of cut and pressed decanters, sugar dishes, salts, etc.

No. 227. Abraham Miller, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 crate Queen's ware, consisting of plain white, Wedgewood, colored, and black pitchers, spittoons, jars, pans, teapots, etc., etc.; also, an assortment of stone ware, all varying in their shape and price.

No. 245. Thomas Richards, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 box window glass.

No. 336. Henry Bayly, Baltimore, Md. —1 box cut glass ware, consisting of pitchers, decanters, celery glasses, etc.

No. 359. Brooklyn Flint Glass Comp'y, New-York city.—Specimens of glass, manufactured by the Brooklyn Glass Company, which exhibits great purity and brilliancy.

No. 382. James E. Jones, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens domestic crockery, consisting of a variety of articles, and among the rest, two pitchers, transparent porcelain, handsomely ornamented, and finished in French style; from the manufactory of Tucker, Philadelphia, Pa.

No. 396. B. C. Milburn, Alexandria, D. C.—10 pieces stone ware.

No. 410. H. J. & C. J. Baker, Baltimore Glass Works, Baltimore, Md., O. Whittlesey, agent, Washington, D. C.—Specimens of plain and colored glass ware, cut and pressed, consisting of decanters, bottles, tumblers, etc.

No. 576. Ernest & Cowles, Baltimore, Md.—11 specimens stone ware.

No. 577. Mr. Tucker, Philadelphia, Pa. —1 pair porcelain pitchers.

No. 615. Barnes, Hobbs & Co., Wheeling, Va.—6 boxes glass ware.

No. 621. Mr. Tucker, Philadelphia, Pa. —1 American china pitcher.

Fine Arts, Musical, Philosophical, and Medical Instruments.

No. 57. Nathan Coolidge, Worcester, Mass —1 Melodian, (musical.)

No. 114. Conrad Meyer, Philadelphia, Pa. —2 Pianos and stands.

No. 144. F. Meyer & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—4 Packages containing the standard weights and measures of the state of Pennsylvania, made of brass and handsomely finished.

No. 190. Francis Arnold, Baltimore, Md. —1 Case specimens of surgical instruments containing instruments for amputation, silver mounted, with extra tourniquet, $50, and 1 set of extracting forceps, $27, and 2 cases dissecting instruments, price $5,50.

No. 205. John Plaff, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 Flutes, 1, $45, and 1, $40; 1 Clarionet $40.

No. 238. Caleb Miller, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 Pianos, &c.

No. 244. James Earle, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Box containing one oil Painting, "The Circassian Slave," handsomely framed and executed, valued with frame at $100. The painting by Mrs. Rembrandt Peale.

No. 259. J. E. Mayall, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Case daguerreotype portraits, including illustrations of the Lord's Prayer.

No. 261. Johnson & Co., New-York City, by C. Holt, Jr., New-York City.—6 Pianos.

No. 272½. Wm. Cooper, Tennessee, by Z. C. Robbins, agent, Washington, D. C.—1 Painting.

No. 305. Chauncey Warriner, Washington City.—1 Self-acting meteorological register, embracing anuerometer, rain gauge, barometer, tide and time register, invented by him.

No. 328. Lewis Vail, agent, Canton, Ohio. —1 Magnetic water gauge, invented by Mr. George Faber of same place.

No. 341. J. & W. C. Neff, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Galvanic battery.

No. 357. Brewster & Ingraham, Bristol, Conn.—5 Specimens clocks.

No. 361. Townsend & Clark, Baltimore, Md.—Several specimen sets of teeth on springs.

No. 366. Samuel Jackson, Baltimore, Md. —2 Cases specimens surgical instruments.

No. 369. James P. Frothingham, Newburyport, Mass.—1 Patent theodolite protractor.

No. 374. C. C. Reinhardt & Co., Baltimore, Md.—Several cases, handsomely finished specimens dental and other surgical instruments, pearl and gold mounted, some with stone settings. Also spurs of every variety, patent trusses, &c. &c.

No. 377. John Plumbe, Washington, D. C. Several frames specimens daguerreotype pictures.

No. 378. B. L. Ball, Boston, Mass.—1 Case of artificial teeth.

No. 393. Joseph Hiskey, Baltimore, Md.—1 Upright piano.

No. 415. Edward Johnson, Washington, D. C.—Hart's bust of Henry Clay.

No. 430. Martin & Coups, New-York City, Wm. Fischer agent, Washington, D. C.—2 Guitars in cases.

No. 431. Firth & Hall, New-York City, same gentleman agent.—1 Guitar in case.

No. 435. Wm. A. Pratt, Alexandria, D. C.—2 Daguerreotypes, (patent.)

No. 454. Wilkinson & Armstrong, Philadelphia, Pa.—Specimens of teeth and dentistry.

No. 459. Hudson Taylor, Washington city.—1 Painting, by Dr. Wm. McLeod of same place.

No. 460. Miss Milligan, Washington, D. C.—3 Miniature paintings.

No. 462. E. A. Scherr, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Piano forte, highly finished, price $1000.

No. 488. John F. Meredith, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens gilding on glass.

No. 494. W. Ogden Miles, Washington, D. C.—1 Portrait of Hezekiah Niles.

No. 503. L. Ricketts, Baltimore, Md.—3 Pianos.

No. 506. Harvey Lindsly, Washington, D. C.—Picture by Doughty.

No. 508. C. H. Eisenbrandt, Baltimore, Md.—1 Case musical instruments.

No. 529. T. Gilbert & Co., Boston, Mass.—2 Pianos æolian attachment, (Coleman's.)

No. 532. G. C. Washington, Georgetown, D. C.—2 Miniature paintings.

No. 537. Charles A. Spencer, Madison, N. Y.—1 Reflecting telescope; 1 compound architectural microscope.

No. 535. W. F. Bayly, Washington, D. C.—1 Painting.

No. 536. John D. Lee, Washington City—1 Painting.

No. 571. L. V. Badger, Boston, Mass.—1 Enema Chair.

No. 574. Wm. Dougherty, Washington, D. C.—1 Marble cupid.

No. 578. C. R. Barney, Baltimore, Md.—4 American mosaic marble works.

No. 585. M. Valentine, Washington, D. C.—1 Temple of liberty.

No. 599. Lemuel Gilbert, Boston, Mass., Benjamin Lang, agent, belonging to John Elbert & Sons.—5 Pianos.

No. 606. James Ackerman, New-York.—Specimens colored lithographic prints.

No. 635. Joseph Simpson, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens of seal engravings on cornelian, a finely executed specimen of workmanship.

No. 638. Dr. Page, Washington, D. C.—Magnetic electrical machine.

No. 649. Miss Bishop of Philadelphia, by Mr. Warner.—3 Miniature paintings.

No. 656. J. Chickering, Boston, Mass.—1 Grand action walnut piano, and one square seven octaves, walnut.

No. 674. George Hughes, Boston, Mass.—1 Seven octave piano forte.

No. 685. A. L. Dick, New-York.—1 Engraving.

No. 693. N. Hunt, Boston, Mass.—1 Case dental and surgical instruments.

No. 720. Graves & Co., Winchester, N. H.—1 Box musical instruments.

No. 723. Bliss & Creighton, New-York—1 Chronometer.

No. 726. E. J. Conrad, Baltimore, Md.—1 Rose wood piano.

No. 764. Henry Fitz, New-York City—1 Achromatic telescope.

Hemp and Cordage.

No. 39. R. C. Boute, Cincinnati, Ohio.—Specimens of hemp, tarred rope, bell line, and sash cord.

No. 41. American Hemp Co., Patterson, N. J.—1 Specimen of hemp duck.

No. 128. A. Stone, Philadelphia, Pa.—A number of specimens of hemp hose, for the use of fire companies, railroads, locomotives, steamboats, ships, &c. &c.

No. 165. J. & J. D. Wetham, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Package specimens rope and blocks.

No. 449. J. M. Harvey, Botte Court County, Va.—2 Specimens hemp.

No. 580. Towner Dunlap & Co., Baltimore, Md.—Specimens heddle-twine and 1 box oakum.

No. 753. Wm. P. Thomasson, Louisville, Ky.—6 Specimens of water rotted hemp.

No. 754. Jeremiah Johnson, Portsmouth, N. H.—1 Coil rope from American hemp.

Machines, Models, &c.

No. 58. Wm. W. Wilson, Birmingham, Allegany Co., Pa.—1 Model.

No. 59. Ebenezer Hunt, Pittsburg, Pa.—1 Miniature model of spike machine.

No. 162. J. Scott, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Carpet loom, and 2 smaller looms, the carpet loom in operation.

No. 212. James Doull, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Case containing specimens warping mill hecks.

No. 225. Alfred Jenks, Philadelphia, Pa.—A cotton loom.

No. 242. Tayman & Brown, Harrisburg, Pa.—1 Forge bellows.

No. 264. Ross, Gunn & Greene, New-York City.—1 Portable mill and bolter in operation; 1 threshing machine; 1 horse power machine.

No. 269. Gloucester Machine Co., Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Loom.

No. 272½. Daniel Clow, Cayuga Co., N. Y.—1 Model fanning mill.

No. 292. J. G. Rollow, Fredericksburg, Va.—Wheat threshing machine.

No. 293. Jackson & Roberts, Fredericksburg, Va.—Wheat threshing machine.

No. 294. George Law, Baltimore, Md.—1 Horizontal Chase's card spinner; 1 vertical card spinner, in operation during exhibition.

No. 318. Edward Stabler, Montgomery Co., Md.—Seal press and slide rest, a handsomely finished and ingenious instrument.

No. 342. James M. Wilder, Bennington, N. H.—1 Sausage meat machine.

No. 344. James H. Lusby, for Lusby &

Stoddard, Washington City, D. C.—1 Washing machine and 1 churn.

No. 376. David Anthony, Sen., Springport, N. Y.—Model of an improved method of regulating furrow slice in ploughing.

No. 399. J. Alden, Cabotville, Mass.—1 Box specimen reeds, for the use of manufacturing companies.

No. 400. Wm. Miles, Washington City, D. C.—1 Self-adjusting hinge float stream water wheel.

No. 401. Lay & Penney, York, Pa.—2 Machines for cutting and crushing corn fodder.

No. 405. Mantz & Washburn, Frederick, Md.—1 Self lubricator machine.

No. 413. J. S. H. Bartlett, New-York City.—Howell's patent tanning machine in operation.

No. 423. Edward D. Tippet, Georgetown, D. C.—Washing machine, hominy mill, sausage cutters, and cold water steam engine.

No. 450. James Cook, Taunton, Mass.—Knife sharpener and calico cylinder.

No. 483. John Haskell, Baltimore, Md.—1 Machine for setting cards.

No. 485. Samuel Lowrey, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Brick machine.

No. 492. W. H. Jennison, New-York.—The diaphragm filter, a convenient and excellent contrivance for those who use river water. They have been introduced into the larger cities with great success, and have received the approbation of all who have examined them in operation during exhibition.

No. 498. H. J. Hall, New-York.—1 Sowing machine for grain.

No. 500. Ezra Ripley, Troy, N. Y.—1 Patent tea kettle.

No. 502. A. F. Sherman, Roxbury, Mass.—Moses Day's spinning machine for rope yarn, in operation.

No. 504. Frederick Davis, Baltimore, Md.—1 Fire engine and reel, and 250 feet hose.

No. 512. Henry T. Hartman, Scottsville, Albany co., Va.—1 Model sulkey.

No. 534. Jacob F. Barnes & Co., Richmond, Va.—½ Size tobacco press.

No. 573. Towner, Dunlap & Co., Baltimore, Md.—1 Box weaver's shuttles.

No. 604. Elias Howe, Jr. & George Fisher, Cambridge, Mass.—2 sowing machines.

No. 607. James Miller, Baltimore, Md.—1 Case containing 6 weaving peeds.

No. 611. Benjamin Cushman, Clear Spring, Md.—1 Self-adjusting log brace for saw mills.

No. 620. William Duff, Baltimore, Md.—1 Hydrostatic safety valve.

No. 665. E. Barrows, New-York.—6 ventilators.

No. 680. H. W. Babbitt, Providence, R. I.—Watch main spring tool, and micrometer sliding scale.

No. 681. Daniel H. Wiggins. Annapolis, Md.—1 Windmill with press and screw.

No. 691. A. K. Fahnestock, Harrisburg, Pa.—1 Brick press.

No. 692. Taylor & Flagler, Peekskill, N. Y.—2 Patent forges.

No. 710. Wm. Golding, Boston, Mass.—5 Dozen loom pickers.

No. 712. Caleb Pratt, Boston, Mass.—1 Model bridge.

No. 714. H. Alkin, Franklin, N. H.—Leather splitting machine.

No. 718. John S. Fuller & Co., Lowell, Mass.—1 Case bobbins.

No. 727. Samuel Lichtenthaller, Litz, Lancaster co., Pa.—Model of an invention for moving window shutters without opening the sash.

No. 730. H. D. Childs, Boston, Mass.—1 Patent horse power model.

No. 732. A. Burgess & Son, Providence, R. I.—Specimens of power loom pickers.

No. 742. A. & C. W. Holbrook, Providence, R. I.—Specimens of loom pickers.

No. 746. Wm. A. Burke, Lowell, Mass.—Specimens iron castings, Lowell machine shop.

No. 758. A. G. Heckrotte, Cumberland, Md.—1 Filtering apparatus.

No. 779. N. B. Vansant, Washington City.—1 Small steam engine.

Col. Capron, Laurel, Md.—From Laurel Factory, 1 spinning frame and loom, in operation during exhibition.

G. W. Metz, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Smith's bellows, extra size, price $30.

Agricultural Implements.

No. 24. Hall & Roby, Milbury, Mass.—6 Specimens scythes.

No. 214. Wm. H. Carr, Philadelphia, Pa.—5 Packages containing hand ploughs and hay forks.

No. 226. Livingston & Lyman, Philadelphia, Pa.—6 Bundles specimen forks, price from $7 to $11 50; 1 Specimen bugle fan, of elegant finish,

No. 228. Brown & Eyre, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Plough.

No. 257½. William Dysert, Gettysburg, Pa.—1 Universally adjustible cultivator.

No. 262. P. Valentine, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Bundle of hoes.

No. 292. J. G. Rollow, Fredericksburg. Va.—Wheat threshing machine.

No. 293. Jackson & Roberts, Fredericksburg, Va.—Wheat threshing machine.

No. 311. Ezra Whitman, Jr., Baltimore, Md.—Wheat fans, straw and fodder cutters, ploughs, grain cradles, corn and cob mills, wheat thresher, &c. &c.

No. 316. George Watt, Richmond, Va.—1 Patent plough.

No. 322. Jessop, Warbaugh & Co., York, Pa.—1 Corn fodder cutter and grinder.

No. 324. Charles M. Bennett, Chambersburg, Pa.—1 Wheat fan.

No. 347. Camp, Denning & Hart, Farmington, Conn.—8 Specimens hay and manure forks.

No. 349. Wm. Gawthrop & Son, Baltimore, Md.—4 Ploughs and 1 box shears.

No. 367. J. T. Grant, Schaghticoke, N. Y.—2 Grain cradles, specimens.

No. 373. James Murray, Baltimore, Md.—10 Specimens of agricultural implements, consisting of corn shellers, straw cutters, corn crushers, &c. &c.

No. 394. Samuel Pennock, Kennet Square, Chester Co., Pa.—1 Seed and grain planter.

No. 474. Asa Barber, Stephentown, N. Y.—1 Flock cutter.

No. 495. R. Sinclair, Jr. & Co., Baltimore, Md.—36 Specimens various agricultural implements.

No. 496. Levi Davis for Joseph Libby, Georgetown, D. C.—16 Specimens agricultural implements, various kinds.

No. 517. C. Lathrop, Western New-York—Rogers' steel improved cultivator.

No 563. Obed Hussey, Baltimore, Md.—1 Reaping machine, which attracted much attention.

No. 564. O. Atwood, Philadelphia, Pa.—2 Wheat machines.

No. 605. J. S. Eastman, Baltimore, Md.—1 Plough, 1 straw cutter, 1 threshing machine.

No. 609. C. T. Botts, Richmond, Virginia.—1 Straw cutter and 1 cutting machine.

No. 637. R. B. Dunn, North Mayne, Me.—Specimen of scythes.

No. 644. Samuel Hanna, New-York.—1 Corn sheller.

No. 669. E. S. Williams, Connecticut.—1 Garden engine.

No. 670. J. S. Eastman, Baltimore, Md.—Cylindrical straw cutter, and 1 iron plough.

No. 676. H. M. Smith, Richmond, Va.—1 Patent cutting machine.

No. 692. Taylor & Flagler, Peekskill, N. Y.—5 Ploughs.

No. 696. Wm. H. Stevens, Marion Co., Ill.—1 Grain cleaner.

No. 701. Ruggles, Nourse & Mason, Boston and Worcester, Ma.—17 Varieties of ploughs, consisting of the celebrated eagle plough, with lock, coulter and wheel, wheel cutter and draft rod, and plain. Also sward plough, with cutter and Scotch clevis, and three varieties of sub-soil plough.

Partridge's twelve, ten, six, and four tine elastic steel manure forks. A pruning saw and chisel, a seed drill with two hoppers, and 3½ dz. Tower's assorted cast steel polished hoes, beautifully wrought.

No. 739. John F. Hopkins & Son, Cambridge, Mass.—Specimens hoes, manure and hay forks.

No. 786. John Davidson, Georgetown, D. C.—1 Plough.

Miscellaneous.

No. 211. H. W. Frankland, Georgetown, D. C.—1 Specimen miniature ship, very neatly finished.

No. 213. J. R. Watson, Perth Amboy, N. J.—1 Package containing specimens fire proof bricks.

No. 254. C. Y. Hanes, Philadelphia, Pa.—1 Case containing imperfect specimens of embossed lamp shades, temperance fans, plain do. and colored do.

No. 257½. Emeline Biddleman, Washington, D. C.—Embroidered centre table cover.

No. 298. Ladies' Benevolent Association, New-London, Conn.—1 Fancy work Basket.

No. 299. Mrs. Turner, St. Mary's County, Md.—1 Counterpane.

No. 319. Mrs. Jeffries, Washington, D. C.—1 Fancy shell box.

No. 320. B. F. Palmer, Meredith, N. H.—Artificial leg, a remarkably ingenious piece of mechanism, as shown by an operative sample.

No. 326. John Ebert & Sons, Frederic, Md.—Specimens of fancy colored saddle seatings, and piano covers.

No. 327.—Miss Franzoni, Washington, D. C.—4 Specimens net-thread bonnets; 2 net-thread caps, &c.

No. 330. Matthew Weed, for Jos. Weed, Philadelphia, Pa.—5 Glass bonnets.

No. 336. Henry Bayley, Baltimore, Md.—3 Quilts, made by a Lady 40 years of age, who has been crippled from her birth.

No. 337. Mid-Lothian Coal Mining Co., Richmond, Va. A. S. Woodbridge, Prest.—1 Specimen bituminous coal.

No. 338. Stone Henge Mines, Richmond, Va. John J. Worth & Co., Proprietors.—1 Specimen bituminous coal.

No. 360. Mrs. Martin, Washington, D. C.—1 Album quilt.

No. 368. T. Dickenson, Baltimore, Md.—Specimens turning.

No. 381. R. & A. W. Robinson, Attleborough, Mass.—1 Case gilt buttons, various and beautiful specimens.

No. 388. Harriet E. Thompson, Washington, D. C.—1 Embroidered table cover.

No.   Mrs. C. M. Brockway, Brockport, N. Y.—16 Specimens of embroidery.

No. 412. James Callahan, Baltimore, Md—A Tidy, (net.)

No. 414. Miss Elizabeth Roach, Alexandria, D. C.—1 Black silk veil.

No. 421. Mary A. Tyson & Sisters, Washington, D. C.—13 Specimens of embroidery.

No. 421. Robert Campbell, Washington, D. C.—1 American eagle.

No. 428. Mrs. Lenthall, Washington, D. C.—1 Stand containing net baskets and bonnets, and 1 rag quilt.

No. 433. Mrs. Saml. Hanson, Washington, D. C.—2 Net petticoats.

No. 434. Mrs. Maria Baker, Washington, D. C.—1 Tidy (net.)

No. 441. Doct. Chas. T. Jackson, Boston, Mass.—Specimens of tin, zinc and copper ores.

No. 453. Mrs. A. E. Bosley, Baltimore, Md.—1 Pair corsets.

No. 458. Dr. J. H. Bayne, Prince George County, Md.—Specimens strawberries and cherries.

No. 466. J. C. Van Epps, New-York.—Family silk worms..

No. 478. Daniel H. Dager & Co., Montgomery Co., Penn.—Specimens fire brick, iron ore, lime, and fire clay.

No. 501. J. J. Greenough, Washington City.—1 Net work table cover.

No. 515. Emma Tiddeman, Easton, Md.—Specimens yarn hose.

No. 516. E. & E. Ford, Philadelphia, Pa.—Specimens ivory work.

No. 528. Manning & Lee, Baltimore, Md.—6 Bricks.

No. 532. G. C. Washington, Georgetown, D. C.—1 Piece of embroidery.

No. 540. Geo. W. Jones, Baltimore, Md.—1 Jointed fishing rod.

No. 544. Mrs. Mary T. Wood, Friendship, M. D.—1 Laurel leaf quilt.

No. 546. T. O. Brackett, Boston, Mass.—1 Frame and box utensil.

No. 547. Charles Ackerman, Providence, R. I.—2 Improved letter holders.

No. 551. F. Fowler, Baltimore, Md.—Flower stand and 2 bird cages.

No. 559. J. G. Proud, Jr., Washington, D. C.—1 Specimen of dry pressed brick.

No. 560. Miss M. S, Massie, Winchester, Va.—Specimen of patchwork quilt.

No. 562. Col. Robinson, Mount Hope, G. T.—Specimens of lemons and strawberries.

No. 567. Allen Ward, Baltimore, Md.—3 Coat sectors and 1 index measurer for the use of tailors.

No. 584. Stillman, Allen & Co., Novelty Iron Works, N. Y.—1 Copper boat of beautiful construction, made buoyant by air chambers; price $300.

No. 588. Mrs. A. B. Coburn, Lowell, Mass.—1 Embroidered table cover.

No. 602. J. A. Cutting, Boston, Mass.—1 Parlour bee hive.

No. 614. Joseph Francis, New-York.—1 Nautilus self-inflating life preserver.

No. 616. Louis Vivans, Washington City.—Hovey seedling strawberries.

No. 619. J. L. Vandoren, New-York.—Specimens lard oil.

No. 632. Thomas Tennant, Baltimore, Md.—1 Table or bed book-holder.

No. 633. Richard Hawkins, New-York.—Samples of wooden buttons.

No. 646. Mrs. Maria Eliza Whiting, Norfolk, Va.—1 Embroidered miniature dress.

No. 659. John A. Jones, Baltimore, Md.—1 Box of hair dye.

No. 660. Cowring & Seymour, New-York.—3 Wooden pumps and 1 pipe.

No. 687. Wm. Thomas, Baltimore, Md.—1 Ship's Pump.

No. 672. The Misses Drake, Washington, D. C.—4 Specimens of embroidery.

No. 683. Charles B. Colbert, Prince Geo. Co., Md.—9 White oak curls.

No. 700. Wm. Y. Singleton, Springfield, Ill.—Specimen of water proof cement.

No. 707. Wm. H. Plumbe, Washington D. C.—1 Patchwork quilt.

No. 708. J. J. Roach, Baltimore, Md.—1 Specimen sign.

No. 745. Cutler & Robinson, Boston, Ma.—2 Pumps.

No. 755. Henry Johnson, Hartford, Ct.—1 Brass pump.

No. 757. Richard Smith, Washington City.—1 Counterpane and knit coat.

No. 759. Fairchance Iron Works, Fayette Co., Va.—Specimens iron ore and coal.

No. 761. Thomas Berry, Washington City.—1 Marble flower basket.

No. 766. Nicholas Longworth, Cincinnati, O.—Wine made from various grapes.

No. 787. E. Roberts, Boston, Mass.—Specimens of embroidery and shell work.

MACHINERY EXHIBITED AT THE WASHINGTON FAIR.

We were much struck with the perfection and beauty of the several articles of machinery, kept in operation during the Fair. The cotton machinery, the throstle, and the loom, were of exquisite workmanship, and we understand were made at the machine shop of the Laurel Factory, Maryland, one of the most complete and well conducted factories in the Union; built, arranged and conducted by Col. Capron, who erected it in a comparative wilderness, which he has caused "to blossom as the rose." On some future occasion we shall offer to our readers a treat in its history and statistics. The machine for spinning rope yarns was also beautiful, and produced a great saving of labor; it was, we believe, from Roxbury, Massachusetts. The one for making cards, for carding wool and cotton, from Worcester, Massachusetts, worked like magic.

But there was a small machine which attracted all eyes, and was constantly surrounded by attentive spectators, and that was **Chase's Card Spinner**. We have heretofore noticed this machine, but never before saw it in operation. It was really wonderful to see how it converted cotton into woollen yarn, by covering it with wool, so as to render it apparently superior to yarn made all of wool, for many purposes, because of its economy in working up refuse wool, which would not of itself have sufficient strength of texture—but which, having cotton yarn for its basis, was rendered stout and strong. The proprietor called our attention to many fabrics made from its proceeds—such as linseys, cloths, carpets, hose, &c. And we have since seen some finer articles made by this machine of fine wool, over a finer cotton yarn; one in particular, called guernseys or comfortables, to wear round the neck. It was really surprising to observe the softness and pliability of the yarn. For the article of hosiery, too, its product is remarkably adapted. Take it altogether, we have witnessed the operation of no new machine that has given us more pleasure to see, and we shall be much disappointed if it do not prove of inestimable value. George Law, Esq., of Hollins-street, Baltimore, is its proprietor; and we understand there is one in that city upon a much larger scale, now in operation, well worthy the attention of manufacturers.

Since writing the above we have discovered that, by some mistake, the articles made of the product of this machine are not inserted in the "official list," at which we are much surprised; for surely, none were more beautiful and useful, and none more admired. They consisted, as nearly as we can remember, of a roll of ingrain carpeting, and one or two of what is called three ply; the patterns were elegant, and the colors beautifully grouped. There were also linseys, fulled cloth, and hose; and each and every one showed forth the great advantages of the material of which they were composed. The carpeting was much stouter, being nearly double the thickness of that made solely from wool, as was also the case with the articles for clothing; and the stockings were indeed unique, being of a consistency so stout, that they would have kept the feet warm in a Lapland winter.

THE WAGES OF LABOR.

On several previous occasions we have called the attention of our readers to the important subject of the wages of labor. For ourselves, we should be perfectly willing to let the whole subject of protection rest on this solid basis.

Abundant as are the advantages of the present tariff to our agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, and through them, to the advancement of the general prosperity, even these advantages would, in our estimation, lose much of their value, were it not a fact beyond all dispute, that while they are secured by protection, the laborer in the United States reaps an advantage from it, which is unknown in any other part of the world.

This it is, which realizes the greatest blessings bequeathed to us by our ancestors; and, indeed, as we have before stated, in this advantage to the laboring man is more fully shown the real and substantial benefits of American independence, than in any other of its results.

We are therefore happy now to have it in our power to produce, by a public document, "The Report of the Commissioner of Patents," Document No. 146, of the present Congress, a triumphant proof of all we have ever asserted on the subject of the increased value of labor in the United States, over all the countries of Europe.

By this document which we now publish, and to which we ask particular attention, it will be seen, that not only are the hands employed in our manufactories vastly better paid than those of other nations, but the employment of one million of our population in these pursuits, relieving the agriculturists from a surplus in that employment, keeps up wages also in that department; so that the great mass of our population have more of the comforts of life, than are known any where on the globe.

We repeat, that it was for this purpose our institutions were founded, and whenever our law-makers shall so reduce our tariff as to deprive our people of this great blessing, then will they commit an act which will do more to debase them than any other of which they can be deprived. We have found many valuable tables in this Report of the Commissioner of Patents, to which we shall hereafter have occasion to refer. Meantime we once more ask the closest attention to the following table, and the remarks which accompany it.

State and County.	Kind of Labor.	Prices.
Maine.		
Penobscot and Piscataquis	Labor on farms	$12 to 15 per month.
Do Do	Mechanics	$1 25 to 1 50 per day.
New-Hampshire.		
Portsmouth	Husbandmen	$12 per month.
Do	Mechanics	$1 per day.
Manchester	Husbandmen	$12 per month, or 75 cents per day.
Do	Mechanics	$1 25 per day; same for manufacturers.
Vermont.		
Washington, Caledonia, Essex, Orleans, and Lamville	Husbandmen	75 cents per day; $12 per month.
	Mechanics	$1 25 per day, including board, equal to 25 cents per day.
Massachusetts.		
Middlesex and Worcester	Husbandmen	$12 to 14 per month; 84 cents per day.
Do do	Mechanics	$18 to 26 per month; 87½ cents to $1 50 per day.
Berkshire, Franklin, Hampshire, and Hampden	Husbandmen	50 cents per day; $1 in harvest; $11 per month.
Do do	Mechanics	$18 per month; $1 per day.
Parts of Essex and Middlesex.	Common labor	$12 per month; 66 cents per day.
Do do	Mechanics	$25 per month; $1 per day.
New-York.		
Columbia, Greene, Monroe, and Jefferson	Husbandmen	$10 per month; 50 cents per day.
	Mechanics	$20 per month; $1 per day.
Tompkins, Chemung, & Yates.	Husbandmen	$10 to 11 per month; $120 per annum, including board, estimated at $1 25 per week.
Do do	Mechanics	$20 per month in villages; 20 p. c. less in country; or $1 to 1 25 per day.
Steuben and Allegany	Husbandmen	$10 to 11 per month.
Do do	Mechanics	$1 25 per day.
Cayuga and Cortland	Husbandmen	$8 to 10 per month.
Do do	Mechanics	$1 to 1 75 per day.
Rensselaer	Husbandmen	$8 to 10 per month.
Do	Mechanics	75 cents to $2 per day.
Do	Factory hands	50 cents to $1 per day.
Suffolk and Queens	Husbandmen	$10 per month, including board; or 50 cents per day, and board, which is equal to 25 cents.
Do do	Mechanics	$1 25 to $2 per day, and board.
Ulster and Delaware	Laborers	$10 to 25 per month; $1 per day.
Chautauque	Husbandmen	$10 per month, and board.
Do	Mechanics	$15 per month, and board.
Washington and Essex	Mechanics	75 cents per day; $10, 12, and $13 per month.
Seneca and Wayne	Husbandmen	$10 per month, or $120 per annum, and board; board estimated at $1 25 per week.
Do do	Mechanics	$20 per month, and board, estimated at $1 50 per week.
Madison and Oswego	Husbandmen	$10 to 12 per month; 75 cents per day.
Do do	Mechanics	$15 to 18 per month.
Onondaga	Husbandmen	$10 per month, and board.
Oneida	Husbandmen	$10 per month by the year; $15 per month in hay and harvest time; or 50 cents to $1 per day.
Oneida	Mechanics	$20 per month; 75 cents to $1 25 per day, board included—equal to 25 cents per day.
Herkimer and Montgomery	Husbandmen	$16 per month, exclusive of board; 62½ cents per day.
Do do	Mechanics	87½ cents to $1 25 per day; $16 to 25 per month.
City and County of Albany	Farmers	$10 per month, 62½ cents per day.
Do do	Field laborers	$10 to 12 per month, and boarded; $110 to $125 per year.

State and County.	Kind of Labor.	Prices.
New-York—Continued.		
City and county of Albany....	Mechanics......	$1 25 to $1 75 per day, exclusive of board; and in the country, 25 cents a day less.
New-Jersey.		
Hunterdon, Somerset, Mercer and Middlesex..............	Husbandmen....	75 cents per day; $15 per month, exclusive of board.
Do do.........	Mechanics......	$1 to 1 50 per day, or $200 per year.
Pennsylvania.		
Lancaster, York, and Chester.	Husbandmen....	$10 per month; 40 to 50 cents per day.
Do do.........	Mechanics......	$10 to 12 per month; 75 cents to $1 per day.
Bucks and Lehigh...........	Laborers........	$150 to 250 per annum; 50 cents to $1 50 per day.
Philadelphia City and County.	Laborers........	$1 per day.
Northumberland, Lycoming, Union, and Clinton.	Husbandmen....	$25 per month; $1 per day, exclusive of board.
	Mechanics......	$30 per month, or $1 25 per day, exclusive of board.
Columbia, Luzerne, and Wyoming......................	Laborers........	50 cents per day; $9 to 12 per month.
	Mechanics......	$1 per day, and board.
Maryland.		
Harford, Cecil, Queen Anne, Kent, and Caroline.	Farm laborers....	$8 to 10 per month; 37½ to 50 cents per day.
	Mechanics......	$1 to 1 25 per day.
Virginia.		
Halifax, Henry, Patrick, Franklin, and Pittsylvania	Agricultural.....	$5 per month.
Campbell, Buckingham, Charlotte, Prince Edward, Cumberland, Fluvanna, and Lunenburg.	Mechanics......	$8 to 25 per month; 50 cents to $1 per day.
Kanawha, Jackson, Mason, Cabell, Wayne, Lewis, Braxton, Harrison, Wood, Fayette, Nicholas, Ritchie, Doddridge, Gilmer, Barbour, and Taylor.	Husbandmen....	50 cents per day; $10 per month.
	Mechanics......	$1 per day; $20 per month.
North Carolina.		
Mecklenburg, Lincoln, Iredel, Davie, Rowen, Cabarras, Ashe, Wilkes, Surry, Stokes, Rockingham, and Caswell.	Mechanics......	$1 per day.
	Husbandmen....	50 to 75 cents per day.
Orange, Person, Granville, Franklin, Warren, and Halifax.	Husbandmen....	$7 to 8 per month.
	Mechanics......	$16 to 30 per month.
South Carolina.		
Pickens, Anderson, Greenville, and Laurens.	Farm negroes...	$5 per month.
	Mechanics.......	$15 per month.
Chesterfield, Marlborough, Darlington, Marion,, Honey, Georgetown, and Williamsburg.	Laborers........	28 cts. per day for men; women less; in harvest $1 per day for scythe men.
	Mechanics......	$1 to 2 per day.
Spartansburg, Union, York and Chester.	Laborers........	$6 to 10 per month, and found.
Lancaster, Kershaw, Fairfield, Richland, and Sumpter.	White laborers..	$15 per month; $160 per year.
	Negro laborers..	$8 to $10 per month; $100 per year.
	White mechanics	$25 per month; $250 per year.
	Negro mechanics.	$20 per month; $200 per year.
Georgia.		
Dade, Walker, Chattooga,	Husbandmen....	75 cents per day, or $15 per month.

State and County.	Kind of Labor.	Prices.
Georgia—Continued.		
Floyd, Paulding, Murray, Gilmer, Cass, Cobb, Cherokee, Forsyth, Gwinett, and De Kalb.	Mechanics	Depends on trade.
Alabama.		
Covington, Dale, Henry, Coffee, Pike, Barbour, Macon, Montgomery, and Russell.	Laborers........	30 cents per day.
	Mechanics	$1 50 per day.
Madison, Jackson, Marshall, De Kalb, Blount, and St. Clair..	Laborers........	25 cents per day; $6 per month.
Dallas, Lowndes, Autauga, Perry, Bibb, Jefferson, Shelby, and Coosa.	Laborers........	50 cents per day.
	Mechanics	$1 to 2 per day.
Louisiana.		
St. Martin's, St. Mary, La Fayette, St. Landry, Rapides, Natchitoches, Caddo, Union, Caldwell, Ouachita, Claiborne, Bossier, Sabine, Warren, and Tenas.	Laborers, colored	50 cents per day.
	Mechanics	$1 50 to 2 per day.
St. Tammany, St. Helena, Livingston, Washington, East and West Baton Rouge, East and West Feliciana, Point Coupee, Iberville, Catahoula, Avoyelles, Concordia, Madison, and Carroll.	Husbandmen....	$12 to 15 per month; $1 to 1·25 per day, and found.
	Mechanics	$35 to 50 per month.
Mississippi.		
Average through the State....	Laborers, colored.	50 cents per day.
	Laborers, white..	$12 to 15 per month, and found.
	Mechanics	$30 per month.
Tennessee.		
Perry, Henderson, Madison, Carroll, Gibson, Weakly, and Obion.	Husbandmen....	50 cts. per day; $10 to 12 per month.
	Mechanics	$1 to 1 50 per day; $30 to 40 per month, exclusive of board.
Campbell, Anderson, Morgan, Sevier, Blount, and Monroe.	Husbandmen....	50 cents per day; $10 to 15 per month.
	Mechanics	$1 to 1 50 per day; $25 to 30 per month.
Kentucky.		
Clay, Estill, Floyd, Harlan, Garrard, Johnson, Knox, Laurel, Letcher, Madison, Owsley, Perry, Pike, Rockcastle, Whitley.	Farmers........	$7 to 10 per month.
	Mechanics	$15 per month.
Breckenridge, Butler, Christian, Davies, Edmonson, Grayson, Hancock, Henderson, Meade, Muhlenburg, and Ohio.	Laborers........	$80 to 150 per annum, clothed and boarded, or from $8 to 12 per month.
	Mechanics	Various prices. In shops, by the piece, carpenters furnishing their own tools, $1 to 2 per day.
Bath, Breathett, Carter, Clarke, Fleming, Greenup, Lawrence, Lewis, Montgomery, and Morgan.	Husbandmen....	$10 per month; 50 cents per day.
	Mechanics	$20 per month; $1 per day.
Ohio.		
Delaware, Marion, and Richland....................	Husbandmen....	$10 per month; 50 cents per day.
	Mechanics	$16 per month.
Franklin, Licking, and Knox.	Husbandmen....	$10 per month; 50 cents per day.
	Mechanics	$16 to $30 per month.
Jefferson, Carroll, and Columbia	Husbandmen....	50 cents per day.
	Mechanics	62½ cents per day.
Fayette, Pickaway, and Fairfield....................	Husbandmen....	$8 per month; 50 cents per day.
	Mechanics	75 cents to $2 per day.

State and County.	Kind of Labor.	Prices.
Ohio—Continued.		
Medina, Lorain, Huron, and Erie.	Husbandmen	$17 50 monthly; 80 cents daily, exclusive of board.
	Mechanics	$25 monthly; $1 12½ daily, mechanics pay more board than laborers.
Mercer, Van Wert, Paulding. Williams, Lucas, Henry, Putnam, Allen, Shelby, and Harden.	Laborers	50 cents per day.
	Mechanics	75 cents per day.
Perry, Morgan, and Washington.	Laborers	50 to 62½ cents per day; $10 to 14 per month.
Butler, Preble, and Drake	Laborers	50 cents per day; $10 per month.
Warren, Montgomery, Clinton, and Greene	Husbandmen	$13 per month, exclusive of board.
	Mechanics	$20 per month, exclusive of board.
Wood, Hancock, Crawford, Wyandot, Seneca, Sandusky, and Ottawa.	Husbandmen	$12 per month, and board.
	Mechanics	$18 per month, and board.
Indiana.		
Dearborn, Ripley, Rush, Switzerland, Decatur, and Franklin	Husbandmen	50 cents per day; $9 to 10 per month, including board.
	Mechanics	75 cents to $1 per day, and board.
Jasper, White, Cass, Miami, Fulton, Pulaski, Kosciusko, Marshall, Starke, Elkhart, St Joseph, Laporte, Porter, Lake, Wabash, and Benton.	Husbandmen	$1 per day in harvest time, and 50 cents per day to common laborer, or $10 per month.
Monroe, Lawrence, Martin, Davies, Knox, Owen, Greene, Sullivan, and Morgan.	Laborers	50 cents per day; $9 per month.
Illinois.		
Lawrence, Richland, Crawford, Jasper, Effingham, Fayette, Montgomery, Christian, Shelby, Moultrie, Coles, Clark, Clay, Edgar, Macon, Piatt, and De Witt.	Husbandmen	$8 to 10 per month; 37 to 50 cents per day.
	Mechanics	$1 per day.
Lake, McHenry, Boone, Cooke, Kane, DeKalb, Dupage, Kendall, Grundy, Lasalle, Will, Iroquois, Livingston, McLean, Champaign, Vermillion, and Bureau.	Laborers	75 cents to $1 per day, or $15 to 20 per month.
Alexander, Union, Jackson, Perry, Randolph, Monroe, Washington, St. Clair, Clinton, Bond, and Madison.	Farm labor	$8 to 9 per month.
	Mechanics	$1 to 1 50 per day.
Michigan.		
Macomb, Oakland, Livingstón, Ingham, Clinton, Shiawassee, Genessee, Lapeer, St. Clair, Mackinac, Chippewa, Saganaw, Tuscola, Midland, Gladwin, Arenac, Ogenaw, Kanotin, Sanilac, and Huron	Husbandmen	$10 per month; 50 to 95 cents per day, if they boárd themselves; $14 to 15 per month, by the year; harvest, $1 per day; board $1 per week.
	Mechanics	$1 25 to 1 50 per day, and board; without board, $2 25 to 2 50, sometimes.
Branch, St. Joseph, Cass, Berrien, Van Buren, Kalamazoo, Calhoun, Jackson, Allegan, Barre, Ionia, Eaton, Oceana, Newago, Mecosta, Notipeko, Aischum, Manistie, and Katawabet.	Husbandmen	50 cents to $1 per day.
	Mechanics	$1 to 1 50 per day.
Monroe, Lenawee, Washtenaw, Wayne, and Hillsdale.	Husbandmen	50 to 75 cents daily.
	Mechanics	75 cents to $1 per day; $15 to 20 per month.

State and County.	Kind of Labor.	Prices.
Michigan—Continued.		
The editor of the Michigan Farmer estimates as the average wages of the State.	Husbandmen....	$11 per month; 50 cents to $1 per day.
	Mechanics	$20 per month; $1 to 2 per day.
Iowa.		
Average in Territory.........	Laborers........	$12 50 per month.
	Mechanics	$1 50 to 2 per day.

From an instructive article on the subject of agricultural labor in different countries, its wages, and the comparative condition of the laborer, in the London Mark Lane Express, we condense the following facts: In our estimates we have called the shilling sterling 22 cents, though its value is a trifle less; and the comparison, though instituted with the English laborer, can be easily made with those of this country.

In England, the average rate of agricultural wages for an able man, with a family, is 9 shillings, or $1 98 per week. From this is to be deducted cottage rent at 35 cents per week, leaving $1 63 per week to provide himself with the necessaries of life. In France, a laborer in the same situation receives $1 04 per week; in Prussia, 66 cents; in Germany $1 02 per week; in Holland and Belgium, $1 20; in Italy and the Austrian States, $1 15. It will be remembered that these averages are those of the common laborer—shepherds, carmen, and mechanics, receiving rather more. The food which the wages named above will purchase in the several countries, is stated in the Express as follows:

In England the laborer can obtain for his 163 cents, or his week's wages, either 39 lbs. of bread, or 11½ lbs. of meat, 7¼ lbs. of butter, 12¾ lbs. of cheese, or 174 lbs. of potatoes.

In France, with his 104 cents, he can buy either 46 lbs. of bread, 13½ lbs. of meat, or 261 lbs. of potatoes.

In Prussia, with his 66 cents per week, the laborer can buy either 36 lbs. of bread, 16 lbs. of meat, or 8¾ lbs. of butter.

In Germany, with 102 cents, he obtains either 43½ lbs. of bread, 18 lbs. of meat, 11½ lbs. of butter, 24 lbs. cheese, or 54 quarts of beer.

In Holland and Belgium, 120 cents will buy either 58 lbs. of bread, 22 lbs. of beef, or 460 lbs. of potatoes.

In Italy and the Austrian States, the laborer, with his 115 cents, can buy either 50 lbs. of bread, 22 lbs. of beef, 8 lbs. of butter, 8 lbs. of cheese, or 168 lbs. of potatoes.

This table is interesting, as showing not only the prices of labor in the countries named, but also the price of bread, meat, butter, cheese, &c. It is true, the bread is stated by the pound instead of grain by the bushel; but, as the flour of a bushel of wheat, say 40 lbs., will make from 63 to 65 lbs. of bread, an estimate may easily be made of the quantity of wheat or flour a man in any of the countries named would receive for a week's work. The laborer in this country, who receives his bushel of wheat a day, or other articles in proportion, will readily conceive the meagre fare, and slender chance of "laying by anything," which must attend the foreign agricultural laborer. In all these countries it will be seen the value of provisions is at least as great as here, and in some instances much greater. It is only by the comparisons which such authentic statements enable them to make, that the free laborers, the farmers or mechanics of this country, can fully appreciate the advantages of their position.

THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM.

We have before us, two bills reported to the House of Representatives, for the adoption of the Warehousing System in the United States, and must confess, we have rarely seen an act of Congress which we think would be more destructive to the commerce and manufactures of the country.

It gives a carte blanche to importers, allowing them to import and warehouse every species of goods, wares and merchandize, in every port of entry of the United States; permitting these articles to remain in the public warehouses three years, at any time during which period they may be entered either for *consumption* or exportation.

A Warehousing System for all liquors, certain groceries, and all raw materials might be beneficial, and most goods might be warehoused for exportation, at all those ports from which assorted cargoes are made up for foreign countries—but the admission of manufactured goods of every description to the privileges permitted in either of these bills, would be destructive to the American importer, injurious to the manufacturer, unsettling to the currency, and paralyzing to the general industry of the country.

Accompanying these bills, we have also a report of Mr. Simpson, on the general subject of the Warehousing System.

Mr. Simpson has in this report the candor to state his incompetency to the subject, by acknowledging it as follows:

"My pursuits connected with ploughing the soil and not the ocean, have kept out of view more than a glimpse of the beauty and extent of this subject; nor have I been apprized of the treasures of intellect and wealth the extension of foreign commerce would add to our prosperity and happiness as a nation."

We shall not therefore attribute to Mr. S. any improper motive in framing his bill, which evidently bears the marks of being made by a man who had "*only a glimpse*" of the subject upon which he undertakes to recommend legislation for the great and multifarious interests of this nation.

He also quotes largely from encomiums passed upon the British Warehousing System, and one of them closes with this important truth, the real nature of which seems to have escaped this ploughman, "not of the main but of the soil."

In winding up one of these rhapsodies it is stated, that "indeed it is everywhere conspicuous in history, and characteristic of this Warehouse System, that its chief object is to secure to *British Commerce*, as much as possible, of the productions of the territories and colonies of other nations."

In this we agree with Mr. Simpson; for should the bill reported by him become a law, it would be for British interests one of the very best measures which could be adopted. It is a notorious fact, that at the present time at least 75 per cent. of all importations from abroad are for account of British and other foreign manufacturers, through agents who come among us, reside at our hotels and boarding-houses, watch our markets, sell their goods either through auctions, or at private sale, remit the proceeds, often in specie, and when they have made money enough, return home to laugh at us and our legislation.

The bills before us are framed precisely to suit the interests of this class of men, and greatly to enlarge their advantages. As the law now stands, having the duties to pay on entering the goods, they are obliged to be careful what quantity they import, and to see that the kind imported will suit the market when the goods arrive; and even restricted as this restricts them, all who are well acquainted with the course of our trade with England more particularly, know that there are seasons when the market is completely glutted, and when vast amounts of British goods are sold in immense quantities at a less price than they cost the *honest* importer. Furnish these gentlemen with a store to place these surplus stocks in, and they will import them in greatly increased quantities, for there will be no necessity to force a sale. Instead, therefore, of this glut being *occasional*, it will, under an unrestricted Warehousing System, become continual. Our public warehouses will be the receptacle of all surplus stocks of foreign goods. Having the privilege granted of entering them either for consumption or exportation, during the extended space of three years, it will be more to the interest of their owners that they should be stored here than at home, since they are nearer a market in the United States than in England.

It must be obvious that the Warehousing System has one *undoubted* tendency—and that is, to increase importations; and it is as certain that we now import as much as we can pay for with our export. Why then should we adopt a measure, which will crowd our market with foreign manufactures. This it is which invariably breaks down the currency and the country, and eventually injures every pursuit.

The English system is appealed to, to prove the great advantages to be derived from it; but the framers of these bills have paid no regard to that system whatever. The English Warehousing Law is restrictive in its nature as to ports, and as to the articles warehoused.

We ask attention to a table at the end of this article which we have taken from McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary, and which shows the ports where goods can be warehoused, and the kind of merchandise which is permitted to be so stored. By this table it will be seen that they are principally groceries, liquors and raw materials, and some others used in manufactures. Cottons and woollens, indeed most of the manufactures, such are made in England, are excluded except for exportation.

Surely, if England finds it necessary to exclude from her Warehousing System manufactured articles for consumption, it would be very unwise in the United States to permit them to be warehoused for consumption, for the reasons we have already stated.

Lying in our public warehouse, they would be always in effect in the market so far as they were calculated for our consumption, and owned as they would be by foreigners, they would destroy the American importing business, and throw that whole trade into the hands of those foreigners.

The Hon. J. W. Huntington, of the United States Senate, made a very able report on this subject in February, 1843, from which we make some extracts, regretting much that the crowded state of our pages will not permit us to publish it entire; which the length of the Iron report and the catalogue of the Washington Fair render at this time impossible.

In treating on this part of the subject, that report states:

> " The list of American owners and consignees of goods in a packet ship from Liverpool or London, contains generally the names of those who have ordered their goods with a view to the immediate disposition of them. They are at once brought into market. They are purchased abroad by the regular dealers, to be resold on arrival. If, then, to the number of foreign owners and those connected with them, there be added those American importing merchants who neither ask for, nor would avail themselves of a warehousing system, how few remain of importers and factors to whose benefit it would be sound policy to grant the privileges of such a system. It is to be expected that the foreign manufacturer who, in addition to the monopoly of the market at home, wishes to secure as far as possible the American market also—who is anxious to extend the principles of free trade as they are understood and carried out practically in Great Britain, principles which promote their own industry and give no encouragement to that of other nations—who desires every facility to be given to him to obtain sales at the best prices and with the least expense, will speak well of a system which he believes is calculated to advance his interests and increase his profits. It is easy to perceive that *such an importer and his factor* would be advocates of a warehousing system. It is not so easy to discern the wisdom of that policy which would secure to him the benefits he desires.
>
> It is supposed that the establishment of a system of warehousing will prevent commercial business from being confined to " few and exclusive hands," and to men of large means; that importers who have small capitals cannot afford to pay duties in cash on arrival of the goods; that the enterprising commission merchant of moderate resources has not the means of making advances for the duties to secure the consignment to himself; and that the consequence of enforcing the immediate payment of duties will be to concentrate the importing business in the hands of the capitalist who can advance the cash for the duties, or of the foreigner who " can, by confirmed credits in Europe, control, by a bill of exchange, the ready means of meeting cash duties on arrival, to the exclusion of our own citizens who may not enjoy similar facilities." It has already been suggested that the greater proportion of the import trade has been for some time past, and now is, in the hands of the foreigner. This has not been the result of cash duties: for until recently, with a few exceptions, we have had none. It is the effect of other and far different causes, which it would be wise to remove. While the credit system, in respect to duties, was in full operation, the foreigner had the control of the trade, and the establishment of a warehousing system will not have the tendency to diminish, but rather greatly to increase it. The committee do not perceive that importers and factors of moderate means will be injuriously affected by the present system of cash duties, without the aid of warehousing. The foreigner will give the preferance in the employment of a factor to one of his own nation, other things being equal; but there is generally no necessity that he should make a selection between his own countrymen and Americans. It is believed that the agents employed in the importing business, on foreign account, are generally connected with, or have an interest in, the manufacturing establishments abroad. It has been confidently stated, that " so far as Great Britain is concerned, there may be a few American commission houses engaged in her manufacturing interests, as agents, but a majority are aliens; and that in respect to France and Germany, nearly all are the subjects of a foreign government." In this view of the subject, the committee cannot attach much weight to the suggestion that the introduction of a warehousing system would have the effect of transferring to our own merchants the business of foreign agencies

which has been so long in other hands. The foreign factor will continue to be employed, with or without this system. As to the injurious effects of cash duties on men of small capital, who, it is said, have not the facilities of making immediate payment of them, and who will be forced to discontinue the importing business altogether, the committee have not been able to discover any grounds for these apprehended results. If the interests of this very worthy class of our fellow-citizens are in such danger as has been suggested—if it be true, that "cash duties cannot much longer be maintained without a total prostration of importers of moderate means, and diverting the import business into the hands of those who can command the means of making immediate payment on the entry of the goods," it is somewhat remarkable that they have not been heard on this subject of vital interest to themselves, either in the form of resolutions or of memorials. Not a petition is before the committee bearing the signatures of the merchants of any one of our cities. The memorials of the chamber of commerce of three of our cities, are all the memorials which have been referred to us. It would seem reasonable to suppose that they understood their own interests, and were as well aware of the dangers that threaten them, as some who appear to be so much interested in the affairs of these merchants of moderate capital. As they have not addressed their petitions to us on this subject, so far as the committee are informed, we are led to the conclusion that they do not feel the same anxiety for themselves as others appear to feel for them, and that the operation of cash duties will not be severe upon them, nor attended with such fatal consequences as have been portrayed in a part of the correspondence which has been referred to the committee. And we think there is good ground for this silence on their part; for we do not see how they are to be injuriously affected should the new policy of establishing warehouses not receive the sanction of Congress. There are many reasons why the American importer of moderate capital does not require the aid of a warehouse to enable him to continue his business. One is, that he cannot afford to suffer his goods to remain in warehouse. His means being limited, it is necessary that his capital should be actively employed. He must turn it at once to account. He must keep it in motion. It is the life of his business to have it in active operation. His means are not large enough to enable him to remain out of the use of them, locked up in goods in a warehouse, waiting for a better market, and losing the interest on the capital which he possesses. He will not, consequently, have the ability to avail himself, to much extent, of the proposed system. Another reason why the merchant of moderate capital will not suffer for want of a place of deposite for his merchandise, has been already mentioned. The committee refer to it again in this connection—and it is this: He will not, generally, *desire* to avail himself of this privilege, even if he has the ability to do so. The goods which he imports are those intended to be offered for sale on their arrival. Oftentimes they are fancy articles, which it would not be prudent to warehouse, lest the fashion should change, and they become unsaleable. In most cases, they are "of that description of goods which would go at once on to the shelves of the importers;" and being "usually ordered to meet seasonable demands, the duties would, in most cases, be paid prior to their delivery from the ship." And, generally, they are not in such quantities and of such value as to require the deposit of them to await a market. It is not the *small capitalist* who imports foreign merchandise to a large amount, and who would be benefited by having them warehoused for a time. *Such a merchant* imports comparatively small quantities, proportioned both in quantity and value to his limited or moderate means. *He* imports to sell immediately—not to put in the public store waiting for an improved market. His capital he desires should change rapidly from the form of purchases to that of sales, and from sales again to purchases; and his practical principle is, that "a nimble sixpence is better than a slow shilling." It is the large capitalist, the merchant of extensive pecuniary means, and most unlimited credit, who purchases abroad in great quantities, to sell at home, not always on arrival, but at such times as will most increase his profits. It is such an importer whom the warehousing system would benefit, if, indeed, it would be beneficial to any great extent, to any American importing merchant. If, then, the merchant of small means, and he, also, whose capital is respectable in amount, although not large, would not wish, ordinarily, to avail himself of a warehousing system, were one established, even if his pecuniary resources or his commercial credit would enable him to do it—and if he could not afford to place his goods on deposit for a long period, should he at particular times, have a desire so to deposit them—there would seem to be no ground for the argument that importers of this description will be driven from business unless they are allowed to warehouse in accordance with the prayer of the memorialists. But the committee feel constrained to add, that there does not appear to them to be any *necessity* for providing a warehousing system to enable the merchants of this class to pay the duties without difficulty or embarrassment. By the existing laws, the duties on imported goods, wares, and merchandise, are to be paid in cash, on the completion of the entry; but, except as to goods of a perishable nature, they cannot be sold for the payment of the duties until the expiration of sixty days after they are put in the public store (where they are to be deposited if the duties are not paid on completion of the entry); and, in the case of goods from beyond the Cape of Good Hope, before the expiration of ninety days. A period of sixty or ninety days is thus allowed, within which the importer may have the benefit, practically (if he desires it), of the warehousing system, with the addition, however, of interest on the duties, for the double purpose of securing, if practicable, a better market, or of raising the necessary funds for the payment of the duties. And in far the greater number of importations by this class of importers, they would not wish for so long a time for either purpose. Besides; it cannot be doubted that these merchants would not find the slightest difficulty in obtaining, if necessary to ask for them, sufficient means to pay the duties on arrival. If they are in good credit, and believed to be honest, industrious, and pursuing, if not a very profitable, a safe business, the instances must be very rare in which they could not at once command, by the aid of friends, if they themselves had not the means, the amount required to pay the duties. The committee think that there is no portion of the trading community, who are at all connected with the importing business, who are less interested in respect to commercial profit or accommodation in the establishment of a warehousing system, than the importer of moderate capital; and they believe he will pursue his accustomed business without its aid, unless prevented by other causes than the law which requires him to pay the duties on his goods on their arrival. Indeed, it is apparent that this system would be almost exclusively beneficial to large capitalists and to foreigners. If the merchant of moderate means has not capital enough to enable him to adopt the system by the deposite of his goods; if, for want of pecuniary resources or credit, he cannot put his merchandise in warehouse, and must, to make his capital available, make it active also, and thus be compelled to pay the duties on arrival, (as the memorialists supposed,) it would seem that the foreign producer and the merchants of large capital would possess all the anticipated advantages of the contemplated system, while the importer in moderate circumstances would lose them; and if the effect of its establishment will be (as is supposed) to create an overstock of goods in the market, it will, of course, subject the importer, (who must enter and pay the duties) to the mischiefs which such over-importations never fail to produce; one of which is, a sale oftentimes at a sacrifice ruinous to the owner, and highly detrimental to the regular merchant of small capital. It has been very justly said, that "one of the prominent evils of trade for years past has been a constant plethora of goods; and anything which mitigates that (as cash duties, certainly, to some extent will) will benefit all traders on their own account, as well as the country generally." The committee will not, however, proceed further with this part of the subject.

They have been induced to consider it with some particularity, inasmuch as the most prominent argument in favor of a warehousing system is, that it will prevent the accumulation of the importing business in a few wealthy houses or individuals, and will open the way for the successful employment of the capital and industry of men of moderate means. The Senate will judge of the soundness of this argument.

The committee have already referred, incidentally, to the argument in favor of a warehousing system, "that it would protect the market alike against redundant or deficient supplies of foreign fabrics," because "the quantity of goods in store being at all times readily known, it would enable the importer, with an approach to accuracy, to ascertain the actual wants of the market, and to regulate himself accordingly." There would be much force in this suggestion, if the foreign trade of the country were confined principally to American merchants, and carried on on American account. The shrewdness and intelligence of our citizens would lead them to watchfulness and care, so as not to overstock the market, and thus occasion a loss on their importations. But unfortunately for us, the foreign trade of the United States is not committed to the custody of native citizens, nor are the importations made on their account. The imports, besides the supplies for regular demand, are the overplus of the stocks of European and particularly British manufacturers. Their laws give to them the monopoly of their own markets. They do not intend to overstock them. They do not mean to lessen the prices at home by forcing the overproduction upon the market there. Rather than do this they would prefer destroying the overplus. Hence, it is sent here, and oftentimes sold for the most it will command, without reference to the loss sustained. All experience has shown that our ports are constantly filled with foreign goods, greatly exceeding the wants of the people, and their ability to pay for them. And it is urged that by the establishment of a warehousing system, these quantities will be increased. It is quite evident that so long as the productions of the foreign workshops are not wanted at home, they will be sent abroad, and we shall have our full proportion of them; and their importation instead of being checked by such a system, will receive additional facilities for its continuance and extension. If, during the fifteen months next preceding January, 1842, eleven and a half millions of dollars in coin were shipped from New-York alone, to be applied in part payment of our foreign liabilities, among which were those for imported goods to a large amount, two-thirds of which were on foreign account, what will be required to pay for warehoused goods, if admitted on that liberal system which we are asked to adopt? So long as the United States is made a reservoir for all the surplus productions of Europe, and they are sent here from necessity, to be sold, the foreigner will not regulate his imports "by the actual wants of the market." "The fixed principles of supply and demand" will have no influence over him. He will send his goods here because he has no other market where they will be admitted, and where he can obtain as much for them as here. Hence it is not to be expected that a system of warehousing will produce any sensible effect in regulating the amount of imports in the manner anticipated by the memorialists, or that it will tend much to produce steadiness and uniformity of price.

There are many more objections to the adoption of an unrestricted Warehousing System—but we are admonished, by the smallness of our space, that we must now conclude.

We trust, however, we have sufficiently shown its dangerous tendency to the best interests of our trade and commerce, to cause our legislators to pause, before they adopt such a thorough change in our revenue system.

If we must needs have a Warehousing System, it should be proceeded in with the greatest caution, after the fullest investigation by a committee, with power to send for persons and papers.

We have endeavoured to inform ourselves of the opinions of our merchants, importers and others, and we have no hesitation in giving it as our opinion, that such a committee will find that a large majority of those engaged in the importation of foreign manufactures, (excepting always large commission houses and foreign agents) are wholly opposed to their being warehoused, and certainly no friend to domestic industry can be in favor of it.

ENGLISH WAREHOUSING SYSTEM.

Warehousing Ports.—Certain ports only are warehousing ports; nor may all sorts of goods be warehoused in every warehousing port. We subjoin a list of the warehousing ports in Great Britain and Ireland, and a specification of the goods that may be warehoused in each, classed in tables.

ENGLAND.

Arundle—Goods in Table C.
Barnstaple—All goods except tobacco, East India goods, and goods in Table F, other than sugar.
Bideford—Goods in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, and goods in Table C.
Boston—Wine and spirits in Table B.
Bridgewater—Wine and spirits in table B, and wood and tar in Table C, rum and tallow.
Bridport—Rum, brandy, wine, hemp, iron in bars, timber, barilla, alum, tallow, ashes, hides and skins, sugar, currants and other fruit.
Bristol—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D, E and F.
Chepstow—Timber, deals, hemp, linseed, staves, tallow and tar.
Chester—Rum in Table A, and wine and spirits in Table B.
Chichester—Wood, pitch, tar and iron in Table C, and wool in Table E.
Colchester—Rum in Table A, and wine and spirits in Table B.
Cowes—Goods in Tables A, B and D, and timber and deals in Table C.
Dartmouth—Goods in Tables A, B, C and D, (except tobacco.)
Dover—Goods in Table B, (except tobacco,) and timber and wood in Table C.
Exeter—All goods except tobacco, East India goods, and goods enumerated in Table F, other than sugar.
Falmouth—Goods in Tables A, B, C and D.
Gloucester—Spirits in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, tallow in Table C, and barilla in Table E, sugar not East India, and all other goods not East India produce, and not in Table F.
Goole, near Hull—All articles except tobacco and snuff.
Grimsby, ditto—Goods in Tables A, B, C, D, and E, except tobacco.
Hull—East India goods, and goods in tables A, B, C, D and E.
Ipswich—Wine and spirits in Tables A and B, and barilla.
Lancaster—Goods in Tables A, B, C and E.
Liverpool—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D, E and F.
London—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D, E and F.
Lynn—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, and timber and wood in Table C.
Maldon—Wood goods.
Milford—Goods in Tables C and D.
Newcastle—Goods in Tables A, B, C, D and E.
Newhaven—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, and timber and wood in Table C.
Plymouth—Goods in Tables A, B, C, D and E.
Pool—Goods in Tables A, B, C, D and E, (except tobacco.)
Portsmouth—Goods in Tables A, B, C and E, except tobacco, and hides in Table D.
Rochester—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, and timber and wood goods in Table C.
Rye—Wine in Table B, wood in Table C, and clover-seed in Table E.
Shoreham—Wine and spirits in Table B, and goods in Table C.
Southampton—Spirits in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, goods in Tables C, D and E, and East India goods removed for exportation to Guernsey and Jersey.
Stockton—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, timber and goods in Table C, clover-seed and green fruit in Table E, potashes, sugar, coffee, hides, &c.
Sunderland—Goods in Tables A, B, C, D and E, except tobacco.
Swansea—Goods in Table C.
Weymouth—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, wood in Table C, almonds of all sorts, barilla, clover-seed, currants, figs, oil of olives, salad oil, prunes, raisins of all sorts, and liquorice juice in Table E.
Whitby—Goods in Tables C and D.
Whitehaven—Goods in Tables A, B, C and E.
Wisbech—Wood goods.
Yarmouth—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, hemp and iron in Table C, and goods in Table E.

SCOTLAND.

Aberdeen—East India and all other goods.
Borrowstoness—Timber and wood in Table C.
Dumfries—Wine in Table B.
Dundee—Wine and spirits in Tables A and B, iron, pitch, tar, timber, and wood in Table C.
Glasgow—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D and E.
Grangemouth—Fustic, hemp, iron, logwood, mahogany, pitch, rosin, staves, tar, tallow, tow, turpentine, timber and wood in Table C, and flax in Table E.
Greenock—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D and E.
Leith—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C and D.
Montrose—Wine, spirits and sugar, and goods in Tables C and D, ashes, butter, cheese, coffee, feathers, hams, hides, honey, spruce-beer, seeds, vinegar and yarn.
Port Glasgow—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C and E.

IRELAND.

Dublin }
Belfast } East India and all other goods, including sugar in Table F, and excepting the other articles enumerated in that Table.
Cork }
Coleraine—All goods except East India goods and tabacco.

Drogheda
Dundalk
Galway
Limerick
Londonderry
Newry
Sligo
Waterford

All goods, except East India goods and the articles enumerated in Table F, with the exception of sugar.

Wexford—Wine, sugar, hemp, iron, tallow, foreign spirits and vinegar, coffee, cocoa, rice, pepper, ginger and pimento.

TABLE A.

Annatto or rocou
Cassia fistula
Cocoa nuts
Coffee
Sugar

Not being the produce of, nor imported from, any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter.

Angustura bark
Cotton wool
Ginger
Indigo
Mahogany
Molasses
Pimento
Rum
Wine

Imported from the West Indies.

Cocoa nuts
Coffee
Cotton wool
Ginger
Indigo
Mahogany
Molasses
Pimento
Rum
Sugar

The growth and produce of, and imported direct from any of the territories or dominions of the crown of Portugal.

TABLE B.

Brandy
Geneva and other spirits
Rice
Shrub
Tobacco
Wine

Not being the produce of, nor imported from any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, (spirits and wine excepted,) or not being imported from the West Indies,

Cocoa nuts
Coffee
Cotton wool
Ginger
Indigo
Mahogany
Molasses
Pimento
Rum
Sugar

Being the growth or produce of, and imported direct from, any of the territories or dominions of the crown of Portugal.

Spirits and wine

Being the produce of any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, and imported otherwise than by the said Company.

TABLE C.

Brimstone
Cork
Hemp, undress'd
Iron, in bars or slit, or hammered into rods, & iron drawn or hammered less than ¾ an inch square
Kelp
Linseed
Mahogany
Marble blocks
Oil of turpentine
Pitch
Rapeseed
Rosin
Staves
Tallow
Tar
Timber
Tow
Turpentine
Wood
Zaffre or cobalt

Not being the produce of, nor imported from within the limits of the East India Company's charter, nor imported from the West Indies.

TABLE D.

Hides
Oil of British fishing
Oil of spermaceti, or head matter
Train oil and all other fish oil
Blubber of British fishing
Whale fins of British fishing
Indian deer skins, half-dressed or shaved, & skins and furs of all sorts, not tanned or tawed, or in any way dressed.

Not being the produce of, nor imported from within the limits of the East India Company's charter, and not being imported from the West Indies.

TABLE E.

Alkermes
Almonds
Anchovies
Angustura bark
Aniseed
Annatto or rocu
Arrowroot
Ashes
Balsam, all sorts
Barilla
Beads of amber and of coral
Bees' wax
Black or Dantzic beer
Bristles, undressed
Buckwheat
Cantharides
Carpets, Turk'y
Cassia fistula
Catlings or lute strings
Cheese
Chip hats
Citrate of lime
Citron in salt & water
Clover seed
Cochineal and cochineal dust
Cocoa nuts
Coffee
Copal
Cotton wool & cotton yarn
Currants
Elephant's teeth
Essence of Bergamot and lemon
Essence of British American spruce, imported frm thence
Euphorbium
Feathers fr bds.
Figs
Flax
German sausages
Ginger
Ginseng
Granilla
Gum Arabic
Guaiacum and Senegal
Hams
Harp-strings
Hones
Jalap
Jesuits' bark
Jet
India rubber
Indigo
Isinglass
Juice of lemons
Limes & oranges
Juniper berries
Lamp-black
Plain linen, except sail cloth
Linseed cakes
Liquorice powder
Maccaroni
Madder, ground
Mahogany
Manna
Mercury
Mohair yarn
Molasses
Oil of almonds
amber
aniseed
bay
cajeputa
carraway
cassia
castor
cinnamon
cloves
jessamine
juniper
lavender
linseed
mace
marjoram
nutmegs
olives
oranges
palm
pine
rock
rosemary and rosewood
salad
sassafras
spike
thyme
turpentine
walnut
Oils, chemical and perfumed, not otherwise enumerated
Opium
Orange flower water ointm't
Otar of roses
Pearl barley
Pictures
Pigs' chops and faces
Pimento
Pitch, Burgund.
Platting, straw or chip
Pots, melting
Prunes
Quicksilver
Radix serpentariae
Rags
Raisins, all sorts
Rape cakes
Rhinehurst
Rhubarb
Rum
Saccharum saturn
Saffron
Sal ammoniacus
gem
limonum, or acetosella
prunella
succini
Saphora
Sarsaparilla
Senna
Silk, raw, waste or thrown
Smalts
Straw hats
Succus liquoritiae
Sugar
Tapioca
Tar, Barbadoes
Tornsal
Toys
Verdigris
Vermicelli
Vermillion
Vanelloes, and all other goods unmanufactured.

Not being the produce of, nor imported from within the East India Company's charter, and not being imported from the West Indies.

TABLE F.

Agates, rough and polished
Almond paste
Aloes
Ambra liquida
Ambergris
Balsams of all sorts
Beads of all kinds
Buer
Benjamin
Bottles
Bugles of all kinds
Cambric
Camphor
Candles
Cantharides
Cardamoms
Cards
Carmine
Cassia buds, lignea, fistula
Castor
China ware & porcelain
Crystals
Cider
Cinnamon imported under license
Citron water
Civet
Cloves, imported under license
Clocks
Cochineal
Coculus Indicus
Coloquintida
Columba root
Coral of all sorts
Corks, ready-made
Cuttle shells
Dice
Eau de Cologne

Enamel
Essences of all sorts
Extracts of all sorts
Feathers, ostrich and others, not otherwise enumerated, dress'd or undressed
Flowers, artificial
Garnets
Gauze of all kinds
Ginger, preserved
Glass of all kinds
Grains of Paradise and of Guinea
Gum opoponax
Hair, human powder
Hats and bonnets of all sorts
Jalap Jet
Jewels, emeralds, rubies and all other precious stones, except diamonds.
Inkle, wrought
Lace of all kinds
Lapis lazuli
Mace, imported by license
Manna Mercury
Methiglen Morels
Musical boxes
Musk Myrrh
Nutmegs, imported by license
Nux vomica
Opium Or molu
Ottar of roses
Paper Pearls
Perry Pictures
Plate Platina
Platting of all sorts
Powder of bronze and brass
Powder, not otherwise enumerated, which will serve for the same use as starch.
Quicksilver
Radix ipecacuanhæ and rhatanise
Resina jalapæ
Rhubarb Saffron
Sal limonum & succini
Scammony
Silk, raw and organized
Snuff Soap
Spikenard Starch
Stones, bezoar
Storax of all kinds
Succades Sugar
Threads of all kinds
Tobacco
Tortoiseshell
Treacle of Venice Watch-glasses
Truffles Turbith Waters, mineral and strong, of all sorts
Vanelloes Vellum
Verdigris Vinegar Wires
Watches of all sorts Yarn, mohair

And also all goods and merchandise of every description, which, under the provisions of the warehousing act, may be imported for the purpose of exportation only: all which goods may be deposited only in warehouses enclosed by and surrounded with walls, or in other warehouses, or in places of special security, especially to be approved by the commissioners of the treasury.

Warehouse Rents.

Rates for warehouse rent on goods deposited in the king's warehouses in the several outports, viz:

On large cases and vats containing toys or other merchandise, and packages of wine and other liquids, per week, 6d. each.

Packages of baggage, small packages of presents, viz: boxes, kegs, jars, &c., per week, 2d. each.—All other packages not before described, (except tobacco,) per week, 4d. each.

For every hogshead of tobacco deposited in the king's warehouse at London, 2s.; and for every hogshead taken out of the same, 2s. For every hogshead of tobacco warehoused in the king's warehouse at the outports, 1½d. per week.—[*Treasury Orders*, Nov. 27, 1824, and March 19, 1830.

TESTIMONIAL TO THE HON. ABBOTT LAWRENCE.

We give place with much pleasure to the following well-merited compliment, to one of our most patriotic and worthy citizens, who is ever ready with his purse and his talents, to aid in every good word and work for the advancement of the best interests of his country, as well as with the most praiseworthy liberality in the cause of education, and the many benevolent institutions with which his native state abounds.

There is a propriety in thus adding his testimony to that contained in the annexed letter from the city of Richmond to the Hon. Abbott Lawrence, setting forth the great value of the efforts made by him to sustain the industrial interests of the country, which the editor cannot resist, for no man in the Union has had a better opportunity of witnessing them, nor can they by any one be more highly appreciated.

We take the following correspondence from the columns of the Richmond Whig, of May 27th:

ABBOTT LAWRENCE, ESQ.

This distinguished citizen of a sister state, it will be seen by the subjoined correspondence, was invited to partake of a Public Dinner, during his brief sojourn in this city. We regret that his arrangements compelled him to decline a mark of respect which he so well deserves, and which reflects so much credit upon those who tendered it.

Richmond, May 25, 1846.

Dear Sir—The undersigned, holding in high estimation your personal character, and fully appreciating the efforts which you have made to sustain the great industrial interest of the country, and advance American arts and manufactures to successful competition with those of other nations; and being at all times happy to avail themselves of the opportunity to tender to any eminent citizen of the "Bay State" the hospitalities of Virginia, respectfully invite you to meet them at dinner, at the Exchange Hotel, on Wednesday next, at 5 o'clock.

Very respectfully, your obedient servants,

Isaac Davenport,
Lewis Webb,
Fleming James,
James Lyons,
Wm. H. Macfarland,
Joshua J. Fry,
Thos. R. Price,
A. T. Harris,
James Patteson,
H. B. Gwathmey,
James G. Brooks,
W. H. Hubbard,
Charles Palmer,
Charles C. Hudson,
Henry Ludlam,
Hugh W. Fry,
Henry W. Moncure,
L. W. Chamberlayne,
Thos. Nelson, M. D.,
Nicholas Mills,
John Mabin,
T. M. Smith,
R. B. Haxall,
Abram Warwick,
George Taylor,
Edw. C. Carrington,
H. L. Kent,
Robert H. Gallaher,
R. H. Jenkins.

Hon. Abbott Lawrence.

Richmond, May 25, 1846.

Gentlemen—I have this moment received your obliging invitation to meet you at dinner at the Exchange Hotel, on Wednesday next. I have long promised myself the satisfaction of visiting "*this ancient Commonwealth,*" so renowned in the history of our country; and thus far my anticipations have been more than realized in the fertility of the soil, beauty of scenery, and capability of improvement, particularly the extensive water powers in and near this city.

I thank you for the expressions of kindness contained in your note toward the citizens af Massachusetts, and for the invitation extended to myself as one of her sons, and regret that an engagement to leave your hospitable city tomorrow morning, deprives me of the honor and pleasure of accepting it. I pray you, gentlemen, to believe that I have received this demonstration of your confidence and kindness with deep sensibility, and beg you to accept the best wishes for the prosperity and happiness of the citizens of Virginia.

I have the honor to remain your most grateful and obedient servant,

Abbott Lawrence.

To Isaac Davenport, Lewis Webb, Fleming James, James Lyons, and Wm. H. Macfarland, Esqs., and other gentlemen, of the city of Richmond.

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

The last steamer brought us as usual our periodicals for June. After a careful examination of their contents, we find the following items to be worthy of the notice of our readers.

SCIENTIFIC.

In the last number of the Edinburgh Philosophical Magazine, we find an elaborate article from D. Gardner, on the functions of plants, and an attempt to show that they obey the physical laws of diffusion in the absorption and evolution of gases by their leaves and roots. The inference to be drawn from the evidence produced, is that plants constitute a simple porous system, endowed with no vitality other than forming *cytoblasts* and arranging cellules after a definite type. Another paper in this work describes a remarkable resin peculiar to New Holland, the product of the Xanthorœa hastilis, or yellow gum—or acaroid resin. It was discovered in 1788 by Governor Phillips, and was proved to have been used by the natives as a medicine in cases of diarrhœa. As it occurs in commerce it sometimes appears in masses of considerable size, brittle and hard, but generally comes in the form of powder. It has some properties valuable in the arts. Mr. Mallet, Secretary of the Dublin Geological Society, has written a paper to explain the vorticose movement assumed to accompany earthquakes, or in other words, the phenomenon of the displacement of separate stones of pedestals or pinnacles, or portions of masonry of buildings, by the motion of earthquakes, presenting the appearance of their having been twisted in their beds round a vertical axis. He opposes the theory, and ascribes the displacement to simple mechanical causes, such as a simple impulse in any one line of direction, operating on the stones and masonry, which has by friction, adhesion and gravity, a centre of adherence on which they turn.

In the Mechanics' Magazine, a useful publication, we perceive a method to ventilate ships, proposed by Mr. Webb; the principle of which is, that of supplying a furnace or stove with air for combustion from the hold, or by a blowing machine worked by currents of air or water.

Mr. Crawford has invented an atmospheric break for arresting the progress of railway carriages and trains, effected by a small atmospheric engine attached to them.

A patent has been taken out in England by Mr. King, for producing a continuous light by electricity. Many attempts have been made of a similar kind, but none as yet have succeeded. The principle, as far as developed, is the use of carbon as a conductor, to be rendered luminous by the passage of electricity through it, and not as a terminal point of the light.

An improved method of tanning has been proposed by Mr. Snyder, the method being to perforate the skin to be tanned with fine punctures, varying from one to three hundred to the square inch. When the leather is made, it is found that the holes are visible on the cuticle or grain side, but on the other, or face, they are perfectly healed up and closed. In this way the skins are perfectly saturated and tanned, the "drawing" occasioned by the astringency of the tannin is prevented, and the leather is as soft and flexible as French kid.

Captain Hoscason, of the Royal Navy, in an article against the use of the screw propeller, calculates that the Great Britain in one of her trips consumed about $55,000 worth of coal. We can hardly believe this; but he endeavors to show, that the coal cost in various ways about five pounds sterling per ton, when on board.

A writer has endeavored recently to show that the prismatic colors are attributed to a difference in their rate of motion, and not a real difference in kind. He argues that the sun being a globe, the different rays thrown off have more or less velocity as they radiate further from the centre, and that the sun would appear on this principle of different colors to the eye, if it did not turn round on its axis, thus blending the different colors on its surface. This idea is unfortunately not sustained by fact, since a solar ray can be analyzed by the prism into various colors; and the new discoveries called Polarization in light, show peculiar and inherent properties in different rays.

Hand shower baths have been invented in England. They are but a repetition of those used for some time in this country.

A printing press has been patented in England by Mr. Hill, which, though worked by hand, bids fair, it is said, to impair the popularity of the Napiers. A strong lad can work off in an hour 1,500 sheets, with less labor than a man could on a hand-press throw off 300. As the London Times endorses this invention, we will endeavor to describe it:—

The dimensions of the machine is about that of the ordinary hand press.

The working part is held up on side cast iron standards; on these rests a horizontal frame of iron to support the type table, and the type table runs upon wheels backwards and forwards on the frame. Just above this is the printing cylinder on a horizontal axis; in front of this are the inking roller and apparatus usually attached to it. On the type table is placed the form to be worked. This will give the reader a sufficient idea of the general arrangement of the machine, so that we can now state how it is used. The workman stands at the head of the press with his foot on a treadle, like that which is used to give motion to a lathe; a fly-wheel is turned to keep the revolutions uniform, and by a lever connection a grooved wheel is also turned, which moves the type-table. He connects the printing cylinder with his grooved wheel, and lays a sheet on a register plate in front of him, which has the usual guides. It is seized by claws in the usual way and carried round the cylinder, printed, and then drawn off by other claws and deposited on a shelf opposite the workman, which shelf is on the machine itself.

The types are drawn forward and pushed back again by an ingenious arrangement of a crank arm geared on the cylinder spindle outside the frame. The plan is simple though ingenious, and must bring drown the price of printing presses at least one half. Hill's machine can be driven by hand power or by steam, and it is said to be the greatest improvement connected with the art of printing.

Tobasco, one of the states of Mexico, is described by a recent traveller in the Nautical Magazine, as having great commercial advantages. The soil is very fertile, producing maize and beans in abundance, sugar cane, cocoa, coffee, cotton and logwood. Its fustic is of good quality but not much exported as yet. There are many dye woods in Tobasco, as also woods for furniture of beautiful grain, and medicinal plants of value. The country is intersected by fine rivers generally navigable by steamers.

The harbor of St. Helena is considered a safe one, but occasionally is visited with rollers as they are called, of immense power and "mountains high." The cause is as yet unexplained. On the 7th of March last, a number of vessels were destroyed by them, and the town itself was damaged £20,000. The wharf and glacis disappeared, the iron tanks used by the shipping were destroyed, and the fortifications injured. A twenty-four pound carronade was carried from its position by the waves into the sea.

We learn that a British vessel, the Sir Charles Napier, has carried out thirty fine camels from Teneriffe to Valparaiso, in good health. It is intended to domesticate the animal in South America.

The transit by steam on the Thames is becoming a subject of statistical interest. Eleven steamers ply between London and Westminster bridges daily, making the trips in from fifteen to thirty minutes. The number of passengers carried by these, is estimated at 30,000 per day, and the receipts of each boat are estimated at £125 sterling.

As a curious fact in natural history, we state that the climate of the island of Jamaica has shown on one occasion during the last winter a remarkable change: the mercury, which usually stands at 80° or 90°, stood at 10 degrees below zero for a short period of time.

The Submarine Electric Telegraph between France and England, continues to attract attention, and possibly will be attempted.

The French government have patronised an exploration of the island of Cyprus, for the purpose of studying its architectural remains. M. M. Latire, the commissioner, writes the Secretary of Public Instruction, says that in every part of the island he finds traces of the former sway of the French. There is scarcely a town or village which does not contain a church or abbey, or castle of the French occupants of the middle ages. Fine specimens of antiquity of a monumental character have also been found there, and it is proposed to send home some of the most interesting.

Masses of iron and nickel, having the appearance of meteoric stones, have been found in Siberia recently, ten metres below the surface of the earth. As none of them have been discovered in secondary or tertiary portions, it is argued that the phenomena of ærolites did not take place until the earth assumed its present form. It is reckoned that 700 now fall every year.

The advantage of that profession known as Civil Engineering is perceived in Great Britain every day. At a recent session of the Institution of Civil Engineers, an association we should have in New-York, the history of the improvements made in the navigation of the river Clyde was given by Mr. Atherton. Vessels drawing 17 feet water now pass, where those of six feet draft could not come only a few years since. Glasgow is now a thriving commercial port.

The British Entomologists have discovered a new native moth, which has been honored with a name and a place on the catalogue.

A machine has been invented to register the speed of railway trains, which is driven by an eccentric geared to the axis of a car.

The gold obtained from the bed of the Rhine does not now pay a profit per annum of more than 45,000 francs a year; but a member of the French Academy of Science, M. Daubree, estimates that this river contains at least 36,000 tons of gold, worth 114,000,000 of francs. The "golden Rhine," if this be true, has not been an improper designation.

Earthquakes of an alarming character continued in the city of Catania, Island of Sicily, up to the 9th of May last. The inhabitants expected no relief from their fears till there was an eruption of Ætna or Vesuvius.

Sir R. Murchison the eminent geologist asserts, that of all the larger Mammalia whose bones are found in a fossil state, one species only, the Bison or Bos Aurocks, is living, and that in the forests of Lithuania. An expedition is about to set out to capture a specimen.

The statistics of temperance in the North of Europe are worthy of a brief notice. Five hundred distilleries in Sweden have been closed, three hundred and twenty-three associations formed, and one twenty-eighth of the population become members. The King and Prince Royal are associates, and a grand congress was to have been held on the 15th of June, of all the societies. In Norway the King has also aided the temperance cause. There are 92 societies and 11,000 members.

A communication from our countryman Morse, was read at the May session of the Paris Academy of Sciences in relation to the Magnetic Telegraph.

The Hon. Mr. Talbot is energetically engaged in perfecting his Calotype system, or the preparation of paper, so that by means of the ordinary camera obscura, pictures may be taken of any object on which sunlight falls.

The French iron manufacturers are sending out cast iron frames of houses to the Polynesian Islands, and the English to Australia. Their metallic bedsteads are becoming very popular, and are improved in form and design.

A hospital for consumptives has been established in England, and has been of immense service to this class of the unfortunate.

We notice a curious fact in relation to palm leaves. Three millions of them are annually imported into the United States, to be manufactured into hats. So says a scientific chemist, Mr. Teschemacher. The leaves come in bundles of 50 and 60 pounds, and are the palmate part of the leaf, with a small portion of the petiole. The tree from which the leaves are cut in Cuba and other parts of the West Indies, is called the Chamærops humilis, not differing much from that in the southern sections of the Union, but being less soft and yielding, and therefore better adapted to manufacture. The leaf of the C. spreads nearly horizontally in folds like a lady's fan. On opening these folds on their arrival in this country, in their dried state, there is found a quantity of white flaky powder, and under this is a bright varnish covering the surface of the leaf, which is a true vegetable wax. Mr. T. obtained from one of these palm leaves, by passing his thumb down the folds, 90 grains of white wax in a powdered state, and by boiling the leaf (cut to pieces) in alcohol, 300 grains more. This product is valuable, and Mr. T. thinks at least one hundred thousand pounds of it are lost annually in the United States in consequence of the ignorance of the manufacturers in relation to it.

We find that the qualifications of candidates as naval instructors in the British service, besides those of requisite age and good character, are as follows, and the routine may give some idea of what every officer should understand.

1. Arithmetic, including vulgar and decimal fractions.
2. The first six and the eleventh books of Euclid.
3. Algebra, to the highest order of equations, and its application to geometrical problems.
4. Plane and spherical trigonometry, theory and practice.
5. Nautical astronomy, and the principles of the rules for finding latitude and longitude.
6. Mechanics.
7. Hydrostatics.
8. A competent knowledge of the classics.

When about to receive their appointments, these candidates must undergo an examination in navigation, in the application of the theory of projectiles in gunnery, the sextant, the azimuth compass and the chronometer. French and drawing are required if practicable. These naval instructors rank as warrant ward room officers, and wear uniforms (unless chaplains) like the masters.

A large number of patents have been taken out in England, many of them by Americans; and the contest as to the speed of steamers, the advantages of side wheels or propellers, and the wide and narrow gauge of railways, occupy much of the attention of the scientific journals. We have only space to allude to them.

FINE ARTS.

The English critics complain that no great advances have been made in the art of water coloring of late. Harding, however, at the recent exhibition of the painters in water colors, did himself great honor by a "view in the High Alps."

The subscriptions to the London Art Union have reached £16,500, and the council have offered £500 for a group or single figure in marble.

The recent exhibition of the Royal Academy is pronounced a very superior one in all respects.

An attempt has been made to introduce the Gregorian chaunt into the English Episcopal service.

M. Sixdeniers, an eminent French engraver, was drowned in the Seine a few weeks since.

Cornelius, the celebrated painter, has returned to Berlin, after a long visit to Rome.

A Hamburgh architect, Burlau, has introduced into his plan of building, the use of various colored bricks and other materials.

Jenny Lind, to whom we have occasionally slightly referred, is about to pass a long holiday in Switzerland. She has made an immense sensation in Vienna.

In the last number of the Art Union, are drawings of the most beautiful designs, for small castings in iron. They are worthy the attention of our manufacturers. Hundreds of thousands of dollars are paid by the people of the United States for small articles in iron, useful and ornamental, imported from abroad, and which we might just as well produce at home.

Lehmann, a French painter of merit, has received the cross of the legion of honor.

In literature we observe nothing important as appropriate to this work.

MONTHLY LIST OF PATENTS.

A List of Patents issued from the 21st of May to the 20th June, 1846, inclusive, viz:

To Joshua Hobart, of Dubuque, Iowa, for improvement in the Mining Auger. Patented 23d May, 1846.

To William G. Wing, of New Bedford, Mass., for improvement in Hot Air Furnaces. Patented 23d May, 1846.

To Jeremiah Darling, of Adrian, Mich., for improvement in Rotary Bellows. Patented 23d May, 1846.

To William Read, of New-York city, for improvement in Machines for Reaming Faucets. Patented 23d May, 1846.

To William Y. Singleton, of Springfield, Ill., for improvement in Ditching Machines. Patented 28th May, 1846.

To Frederick P. Haviland & Ebenezer Tuttle, of Waterville, Me., for improvement in Water Wheels. Patented 28th May, 1846.

To John Perrins, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Jacquard Looms. Patented 28th May, 1846.

To Ebenezer Barrows, of New-York city, for improvement in Registers for Furnaces. Patented 28th May, 1846.

To John R. Remington, of Lowndes co., Ala., for improvement in Ditching Machines. Patented 28th May, 1846.

To Charles Low, of England, for improvement in the Manufacture of Iron and Steel. Patented 28th May, 1846.

To Matthias W. Baldwin, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in combining the Steam Whistle with the boiler. Patented 28th May, 1846.

To William H. Baker & Henry R. Worthington, of Brooklyn, N. Y., for improvement in Balancing Valves of Steam Engines. Patented 28th May, 1846.

To John Bt. Clute, of Schenectady, N. Y., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 28th May, 1846.

To Charles L. Meech, of Preston, Ct., for improvement in Plough Clevices. Patented 28th May, 1846.

To Richard F. Stevens, of St. Louis, Mo., for improvement in the Rotary Steam Engine. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To Henry F. Baker, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Boiler Furnaces. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To Daniel Carmichael, of Brooklyn, and Jason C. Osgood, of Chittenango, N. Y., for improvement in Dredging Machines. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To Thomas W. Harvey, of New-York city, for improvement in Machinery for Cutting Screws. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To David Anthony, senr., of Union Springs, N. Y., for improvements in Ploughs. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To Julius Fink, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Cooking Ranges. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To Edwin Owen, of Byron, Ia., for improvement in Cane Cutters. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To James Johnson, of Wooster, Ohio, for improvement in Ploughs. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To John M. Cullen, of Benton, Miss., for improvement in Ploughs. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To Elkanah Ingalls, of Providence, R. I., for improvement in Steam Boilers and Furnaces. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To James Black, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Rotary Steam Engines. Patented 30th May, 1846.

To Fred. W. Howe, of North Chelmsford, Mass., for improved apparatus for Measuring and Marking Cloth upon Looms. Patented 6th June, 1846.

To Albert G. Bagley, of New-York city, for improvement in Pen and Pencil Holders. Patented 6th June, 1846.

To Martin H. Mansfield, of Mifflintown, Pa., for improvement in Clover Hulling Machines. Patented 6th June, 1846.

To Henry Slade, of Chelsea, Mass., for improvement in Stoves. Patented 6th June, 1846.

To Peter Von Schmidt, of Washington, D. C., for improvement in Impregnating Timber. Patented 6th June, 1846.

To William H. Starr, of New-York city, for improvement in Lamps. Patented 6th June, 1846.

To Jacob Peter, of Kensington, Pa., for improvement in the Cap Spinner. Patented 6th June, 1846.

To Joseph Battin, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Gas Burners. Patented 6th June, 1846.

To A. B. Spencer, of Newton, Ohio, for improvement in Machines for Dressing Saws. Patented 6th June, 1846.

To J. J. Greenough, of Washington, D. C., for improvement in Machinery for Boring and Morticing Hubs, (assigned to George Nichols, of Bridgeport, Conn.) Patented 13th June, 1846.

To John Du Bois, jr., of Cascade, Pa., for improvement in Apparatus for Retarding Sleighs in descending inclinations. Patented 13th June, 1846.

To R. D. Granger, of Albany, N. Y., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 13th June, 1846.

To Joseph A. Gregg, of Derry, N. H., for improvement in Snow Ploughs for Railroads. Patented 13th June, 1846.

To Zenas C. Robbins, of Washington, D. C., for improvement in Self-acting Brakes for Carriages. Patented 13th June, 1846.

To George Welty, of West Newton, Pa., for improvement in Working Hides. Patented 13th June, 1846.

To John Du Bois, jr., of Cascade, Pa., for improvement in Self-acting Brakes for Carriages. Patented 13th June, 1846.

To David S. Hallister, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in Corn Shellers. Patented 13th June, 1846.

To Albert S. Southworth & Josiah J. Hawes, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Apparatus for Holding Plates for Polishing. Patented 13th June, 1846.

To Benjamin F. Adams, of New-Bedford, Mass., for improvement in Machinery for Making Cordage. Patented 13th June, 1846.

To George S. Scofield, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Machinery for Cutting Book-binders' Boards. Patented 16th June, 1846.

To Leonard Bliss, of Truxton, N. Y., for improvement in Fastening and Adjusting Plane Irons, (assigned to Samuel T. Jeffery.) Patented 16th June, 1846.

To Abraham Pawling, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Safety Stirrups. Patented 16th June, 1846.

To Frederick Forst, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Spring Mattresses. Patented 16th June, 1846.

To Jesse Fitzgerald, of New-York city, for improvement in Horse Powers. Patented 16th June, 1846.

To John Renfrew, of Fayetteville, Pa., for improvement in Pumps for raising Water. Patented 16th June, 1846.

To Charles W. Grannis, of Collins, N. Y., for improvement in Tuyeres. Patented 16th June, 1846.

To Daniel Clow, of Port Byron, N. Y., for improvement in Fanning Mills. Patented 16th June, 1846.

To F. B. Hyatt, of Maysville, Ky., for improvement in Pumps for Water, (assigned to Samuel K. Sharpe.) Patented 16th June, 1846.

To David Hough, jr., of New-York city, for improvement in Ladies' Skirts. Patented 16th June, 1846, ante-dated 8th June, 1846.

To William Cobb, of Albany, N. Y., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 16th June, 1846.

To Frederick A. Stuart, of Catharine, N. Y., for improvement in Winnowing Machines. Patented 20th June, 1846.

To Silas Hart, of New-Haven, N. Y., for improvement in Machines for Lasting Shoes and Boots. Patented 20th June, 1846.

To Hezekiah Olney & David G. Raven, of Gouverneur, and Jeremiah H. Whelpley, of Champion, N. Y., for improvement in the Induction and Eduction of Steam. Patented 20th June, 1846.

To Daniel Treadwell, of Cambridge Mass., for improvement in Machinery for Welding and Forming wrought iron Cannon. Patented 20th June, 1846.

To John R. Remington, of Lowndes

co., Ala., for improvement in Horse Powers. Patented 20th June, 1846.

To Stephen M. Yeaman, of Elizabeth, Ky., for improvement in Winnowing Machines. Patented 20th June, 1846.

ADDITIONAL IMPROVEMENT.

To Lucius Stebbins, of Hartford, Ct., for improvement in the mode of Coloring Maps. Patented 16th June, 1846.

DESIGNS.

To William Resor, of Cincinnati, Ohio, for Design for Stoves. Patented 23rd May, 1846.

To William P. Cresson, of Philadelphia, Pa., for Designs for Stoves. Patented 23rd May, 1846.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

Voyages of Discovery and Research within the Arctic Regions, from the year 1818 *to the present time, under the command of the several naval officers employed by sea and land, in search of a northwest passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific; with two attempts to reach the North Pole.* Abridged and arranged from the official narratives, with occasional remarks by Sir JOHN BARROW, Bart., F. R. S. An Et. 82. Author of a Chronological History of Voyages into the Arctic Regions. New-York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-street, 1846.

The voyages of those navigators who have penetrated the great frozen ocean as far as practicable, cannot but excite great interest from the copious details they embrace in every branch of astronomical and natural science. No man could be better qualified to give them a popular form in an abridgment, than the author of this book. His connexion as secretary to the Board of British Admiralty has made him familiar with the subject; and he himself says, in his preface to it, that he has felt great interest in them, "from their commencement down to the existing expedition, under the gallant veteran, Sir John Franklin, whom, with his brave officers and men—may God preserve." Every intelligent mind will unite in this wish, and must desire to read this book.

Elements of the Military Art and Science; or, course of instruction in Strategy, Fortification, Tactics, &c.; embracing the duties of staff, infantry, cavalry, artillery, and engineers, applied to the use of volunteers and militia. By WAGER HALLECK, A. M., Lieutenant of Engineers, United States army. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton & Co., 148 Chestnut-street. 1846.

Having no knowledge of, or taste for, the military art, we shall let the author speak for himself. In his preface, he says, "The following pages were written in the form of lectures, without the slightest intention of ever publishing them; but several officers of militia who heard them delivered, or afterwards read them in manuscript, desire their publication, on the ground of their being useful to a class of officers now likely to be called into military service, and it is with this view alone they are placed in the hands of the printer. No pretension is made to originality in any part of the work; the sole object having been to embody in a small compass well established military principles, and to illustrate those by reference to the events of past history, and the opinions and practice of the best generals."

A Treatise on Field Fortification; containing instructions on the methods of laying out, constructing, defending, and attacking entrenchments, with the general outlines, also, of the arrangement, the attack and defence of permanent fortifications. By D. H. MAHAN, Professor of Military and Civil Engineering in the United States Military Academy. Second edition, revised and enlarged. New-York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

The author of this work says, "That feeling a strong conviction that the efficacy of a well arranged militia must depend upon sound elementary military knowledge, he has presumed to dedicate his work to the officers of militia of the United States, in the hope that it may be found useful to our country, by proving serviceable to themselves." Of course, knowing nothing of the matter, we can give no opinion of the merits of this book; they must be judged of by those who, seeking such knowledge, would, of course, wish to possess it.

Life in Prairie Land. By Eliza W. Farnham.

> "Dear nature is the kindest mother still."

New-York: Harper & Brothers, publishers, 82 Cliff-street, 1846.

We have in this volume quite a lively account of Life in the West, given by a lady who seems every way qualified for a female pioneer. The book is full of incident and anecdote, and with a love for the western country, which appears to have made light of all its inconveniences, she has not spared them in her narrative. A perusal, therefore, of her experiences, gives a good idea of what is passing in Prairie Land.

The Novitiate; or, A Year Among the Jesuits. A personal narrative, with an Essay on the constitutions, the confessional, morality and history of the Jesuits. By Andrew Steinmetz.

> Nor aught so good, but strained from that fair use,
> Revolts from true birth stumbling on abuse.
>
> *Romeo and Juliet*, Act 2, Scene 2.

New-York: Harper & Brothers, publishers, 82 Cliff-street, 1846.

Much has been already said and written on the subject of the Jesuits, until their very name has become a reproach, being always considered as equivalent to that of a double dealer. The author of this book, we think, joins in this general view of the order, though he is by no means so severe upon them as many others. From what we have now and heretofore read of them, we think the motto he has chosen from Romeo and Juliet very appropriate, and that their religion is "strained from its fair use." Those who would wish a particular account of their constitution and history, may find it well set forth in this volume.

Ollendorf's New Method of Learning to Read, Write and Speak the French Language; with an appendix containing the cardinal and ordenal numbers, and full paradegms of the regular and irregular auxiliary, reflective and impersonal verbs. By J. L. Jewett. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut-street, 1846.

We have on a former occasion given a favorable opinion of this new mode of teaching, in a notice of a German Grammar by the same author. Its great advantage appears to be, that it follows nature and teaches a language, by first storing the memory with words and accustoming the ear to their sounds. He begins apparently without any system, by the simplest phrases from which the rules are deduced, until gradually and almost imperceptibly he makes the learner acquainted with the etymology and syntax of every part of speech. The rules are to a certain extent concealed, while the pupil is acquiring them through practical illustrations; they become thus familiar, and the rationale is afterwards easily acquired.

Twenty-four Years in the Argentine Republic; embracing its civil and military history, and an account of its political condition before and during the administration of Governor Rosas; his course of policy; the causes and character of his interference with the government of Montevideo, and the circumstances which led to the interposition of England and France. By Col. J. Anthony King, an officer in the army of the republic, and twenty-four years a resident in the country. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton, 148 Chestnut-street. Cincinnati: Derby, Bradley & Co., 113 Main-street. 1846.

We have been not a little interested in the examination of this work, from the account it gives of the country. "Its variety of climate, its numerous and long rivers, its fertility of soil and natural fruits, its myriads of wild cattle and horses, its mineral products, and its convenience to the two great oceans of the world, give it," says Col. King, "advantages that, under a well regulated free government—a government that would lay open, instead of chaining up, its resources—cannot perhaps be surpassed by any location on earth." A residence of twenty-four years in such a country, full of stirring political incident, is well worth a perusal; and the part taken by the author in all these movements, adds much to the narrative of facts and opinions which the work contains.

Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading. No. 58.—*Pictures from Italy.* By Charles Dickens. New-York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

It is scarcely necessary to say anything on the lucubrations of an author of a celebrity so well merited as that which all the world have awarded to Charles Dickens

—it is only necessary to remark, that he likens these "Pictures" to "shadows on the water," and would hope that he has no where stirred the water so roughly as to mar the shadows. We advise those who have not yet read this book, to do so at once, and we think they will agree with us, that it is very pleasantly written, and leaves the impression it intended to make, as a pleasant familiar account of the author's musings, as he journeyed along through renowned Italy.

The Mineral Springs of Western Virginia; with remarks on their use, and the diseases to which they are applicable. The second edition, revised, corrected, and enlarged; to which are added, a notice of the Fauquier White Sulphur Spring, and a chapter on taverns; also, a review of a pamphlet published by Dr J. J. Moorman. By William Burke. New-York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway, 1846.

This is a manual giving an analysis of the different waters of the various springs, with their uses in many diseases, and cannot fail to be valuable to all those who are seeking relief from them, by the use of mineral waters.

Results of Hydropathy; or, Constipation not a Disease of the Bowels, Indigestion not a Disease of the Stomach; with an exposition of the true nature and cause of these ailments, explaining the reason why they are so certainly cured by the Hydropathic treatment. To this are added, cases cured at Stanstead Buryhouse, with observations on the treatment generally. By Edward Johnson, M. D., author of "Life, Health, and Disease," "Theory and Practice of Hydropathy," etc. New-York: Wiley & Putnam. 1846.

This being a medical treatise we have only to say, that the author sturdily maintains his ground; is a regular and sincere Hydropathist, and gives many cases to substantiate his theory.

Lives of the Kings of England, from the Norman Conquest; with anecdotes of their courts: now first published from official records and other authentic documents. By Thomas Roscoe, Esq.; vol. i. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 1846. Containing the Life of William the Conqueror, now first published from authentic documents.

> "Some kings the name of conquerors have assumed;
> Some to be great, some to be Gods presumed."
>
> Dryden.

We have carefully looked through this volume, and welcome it into the literary arena, as the commencement of a work every way desirable. Biography gives a much greater latitude than history, and makes us much better acquainted with the interesting incidents which surround royalty—showing something of the man as well as the sovereign. And the author of this work has availed himself to a great advantage of this liberty, having introduced private anecdotes and scenes, which bring the celebrated character, of which it treats, and those by whom he was surrounded, in a lively picture of all that was passing. We are thus let into many of the motives and feelings which governed them, and have a more minute account of *causes* than could well be known from history.

Animal Magnetism; or, Psycodunamy. By Theodore Leger, Doctor of the Medical Faculty of Paris, late Professor of Anatomy at the Practical School; Fellow of the Society of Sciences and Arts of the Department de la Maine; late Professor of the Medical College of Mexico, etc. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton, 148 Chestnut-street. Cincinnati: Derby, Bradley & Co, 113 Maine-street, 1846.

We have nowhere seen so complete a Treatise on Mesmerism as is contained in this work. Its whole history is gone into, and all the movements of the French Academy respecting it, are given with the results. After which a general history—with many well authenticated cases, details of which are given. Any one who desires a knowledge of what science has to say about this much mooted subject, should possess themselves of this book.

FOREIGN MARKET FOR METALS.

Our friends in the metallic trade will, we trust, excuse us that we give them, in this number, no further extracts from the Mining Journal, than the last Prices Current of Metal. The very long report from the Iron Association, having obliged us to omit several articles, which we are thus necessitated to postpone till August.

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METALS.

London, May 29, 1845.

	£	s.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	£	s.	d.
Iron—Bar *a*. Wales..ton	8	0—	8	5	0	*Copper*—Ordin. sheets lb	0	0—	0	0	10½
" London....	9	0—	9	5	0	" bottoms.	0	0—	0	0	11½
Nail rods "	0	0—	10	0	0	*Tin*—Com. blocks *g*. cwt	0	0—	4	7	0
Hoop (Staf.)	11	0—	11	5	0	" bars......	0	0—	4	8	6
Sheet " " ..	0	0—	12	5	0	Refined	0	0—	4	10	0
Bars " " ..	10	10—	11	0	0	Straits *h*.........	0	0—	3	19	0
Rails, average...	9	5—	10	0	0	Banca	4	0—	4	2	0
Welsh cold blast foundry pig	4	5—	5	0	0	*Tin Plates*—Ch. ICi, box	1	10—	1	12	0
						" IX....	1	16—	1	18	0
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde	3	7 6	3	10	0	Coke, IC........	0	0—	1	5	0
Russian CCND *c*..	0	0—	16	0	0	" IX.....	0	0—	1	10	0
" PSI.....	0	0—	16	0	0	*Lead*—Sheet *k*......ton	19	5-	20	0	0
" Gourieff..	14	5—	14	10	0	Pig, refined......	0	0-	21	0	0
" Archangel	0	0—	13	12	6	" common	0	0-	19	0	0
Swedish *d*, on the spot.	0	0—	11	10	0	" Spanish, in bd	0	0-	18	10	0
" Steel, fagt. .	0	0—	15	5	0	" American....	0	0—	0	0	0
" " kegs *e*	14	5—	14	10	0	*Spelter*—(Cake) *l*	0	0-	18	10	0
Copper—Tile *f*........	0	0—	92	0	0	*Zinc*—(Sheet) *m* export*	28	0-	30	0	0
Tough cake......	0	0—	93	0	0	*Quicksilver*, *n*.........lb	0	0—	0	4	6
Best selected.....	0	0—	96	0	0	*Refined Metal*.......ton	0	0—	0	0	0

a Discount 2½ per cent. *b* Net cash. *c* Discount 2½ per cent. *d* Ditto. *e* In kegs ¼ and ⅜-inch. *f* Discount 3 per cent. *g* Ditto 2½ do *h* Net cash. in bond. *i* Discount 3 per cent. *k* Ditto 2½ per cent. *l* Net cash. *m* Discount 1½ per cent. *n* Discount 1¼ per cent. * For home use it is 32*l*. per ton.

[*From our Correspondent.*]

During the week the transactions in iron have been very limited. Staffordshire and Welsh maintain their prices, but Scotch pigs exhibit symptoms of a tendency to decline. Foreign tin has improved a little since the conditions of the coming sale of 60,000 slabs in Holland have transpired. Other metals are without material change.

[*Communicated by Messrs. Whitcomb and Barton, Old Broad-street.*]

The iron market generally continues very firm, at the quotations of last week's *Mining Journal*. Considerable sales have been made in Scotch pig iron during the week, at 70s. and 72s. 6d.—bill at four months. Holders are expecting higher prices. In other metals no alteration.

GLASGOW PIG-IRON TRADE.

MAY 22.—We have had a quiet week for this article, and the chief transactions have been made at slightly lower prices. We quote 67s. to 68s. for all No. 3; 69s. to 70s. for mixed Nos.; and 71s. to 72s. 6d. for all No. 1.—Cash, free on board.—*National.*

MAY 23.—The market has been quiet during the week, and several sales have been made at prices lower than last week—say, 67s. for all No. 3; 70s. for mixed Nos.; and 71s. to 72s. 6d. for all No. 1.—Cash, free on board. A few sales have been reported by the makers, about 70s. to 72s. 6d. for mixed No. 1, according to terms of payment.

CURRENT PRICE OF GOLD AND SILVER.

Foreign gold in bars.....per oz.	£3	17	9	New dollars..........per oz.	0	4	9⅝
" " Portugal pieces....	3	17	5	Silver in bars (Standard)....	0	4	11

Exportation of the Precious Metals—The following are the official returns of the exports of gold and silver from the port of London for the last week:—

Gold coin to Havre..............................	110	ounces
Ditto to Port Adelaide..............................	3,054	"
Silver coin to ditto..............................	4,250	"

FISHER'S

NATIONAL MAGAZINE

AND

Industrial Record.

VOL. III. NEW-YORK, AUGUST, 1846. No. 3.

FAIRS OF GERMANY.

We take the following account of the Fairs of Germany from Macgregor's Statistics, a standard English work, and ask a careful examination of it by our readers, as it shows the advances making in manufactures in that country.

It will be also perceived that there, as here, the British manufacturers are on the watch, to endeavor, by every means in their power, to get in the greatest quantity of their manufactures.

In a previous number (page 236, vol. I., or August number, 1845) we gave an account of the "German Zollverein," and the manner in which it operates. These fairs show that operation in practice, and the remarks of the editor are very significant, to prove what we have always endeavored to enforce, namely, that the "Free Trade" of England is a determination to force, if possible, all nations to consume her manufactures. The German Union, or Zollverein, however, was formed for the express purpose of protecting their fabrics, which, as we have shown in the article above referred to, they do most effectually, by high duties.

In this connection, we further solicit particular attention to the annexed "Extracts from a Memorial addressed by the Royal Chambers of Commerce at Elberfield and Barmen, to the Finance Minister, relative to the state of trade and industry during the year 1840." The very first grievance complained of is, "That the decreased exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to the United States, have been the means of glutting the Prussian markets with the like goods," &c., &c. Thus proving, what we have more than once insisted upon, that a falling off in the demand for British manufactures in one market, was always liable to glut some other; and that it is often our turn to be glutted from the same cause. And that it is for this we require protection, as Mr. Calhoun justly said—"To place us beyond the reach of contingency."

These German Fairs are very important exhibits of their own manufactures, and serve an excellent purpose, besides that of circulating them by sales, inasmuch as they keep before the people published accounts of their progress, and give an encouragement to those concerned, disseminating most important information. We could wish that some plan could be fallen upon in this country to do the same. This work, in some measure, we trust, supplies the deficiency in that respect, under which our home industry has labored; but such information we have no desire to monopolize, and always rejoice at any additional dissemination of it through the daily press or otherwise.

The amount of our home traffic ought to have a separate, or home department, as a branch of the government; and regular statistical accounts should be annually laid before Congress, as is the case with our trade and navigation, which does not reach more than a tenth part of the value of our agriculture, manufactures, and home trade.

We now submit the article on German Fairs, which we feel satisfied our readers will find highly instructive and interesting.

The Union of Customs has, to an extensive degree, affected the fairs of Germany, by extending the freedom of exchanging commodities within the Union. Formerly, the fairs, especially those of Frankfort and Leipzig, were the places to which the dealers and manufacturers of Germany resorted in order to sell and buy commodities. The Union of Customs having opened the general uninterrupted market of each state throughout all parts of the league, manufacturers and merchants send travellers with patterns of goods for orders, and the dealers are now supplied as in England and France, by the merchants and manufacturers, not so much at the fairs as during the whole year.

The fairs of Frankfort and Leipzig, as well as many others, are still, and must long continue to be, thronged with buyers and sellers. There is scarcely a town in Germany which has not one or more fairs annually; after those of Leipzig, Frankfort-on-the-Maine, Frankfort-on-the-Oder, Breslau and Berlin, the most important are those of Munich, held in the first week of *Epiphany*, and in July, beginning on St. James's day; *Aix-la-Chapelle*, in May, lasting twenty days; *Cologne*, beginning on Easter Monday; *Offenbach*, in Hesse-Darmstadt, beginning on Easter Sunday; *Stuttgardt*, 19th August; Mayence, twice a year; and those of Brunswick, Hanover, Shemburg, Schweidnitz, Stettin, Magdeburg, Bring, and Konigsberg. Formerly, bills of exchange were drawn payable at marts and fairs, and the payers of those bills appeared in person, or by representatives, to honor them. The principal fairs at which such bills became payable were Lyons, Rheims, Rouen, Bordeaux, Troyes, St. Dennis, Dieppe, and Toulon, in France; Frankfort-on-the-Maine, Leipzig, and Naumburg in Germany; and a few others in Italy and elsewhere. Bills payable at the fairs were at one time accepted verbally, afterwards they were accepted in writing. The practice of honoring bills at fairs, and the mode of accepting and paying, is still in force; but this forms but a part of the business transacted, which soon extended to the buying and selling of all commodities; from horses and other live animals, and their skins, hair and wool, to bullion, jewellery, all kinds of manufacture, and the productions of literature and the press.

Frankfort-on-the-Maine.—The fairs of this ancient and opulent city were established, that of Easter by Louis the German, who transferred to it, in 843, on making Frankfort the capital of the kingdom of *Ostrasia*, the chief fair of the country. The Michaelmas fair was established in 1330; and the security and freedom extended to all persons frequenting and returning from those fairs, and the convenient position of the city caused the continued prosperity of both until the French Revolution, which, for a time, seriously interrupted the business transacted at the former, and despoiled the citizens of much of their wealth. Frankfort and the fairs soon after recovered their trading prosperity; and although this flourishing city will, most likely, always continue to be a great central commercial mart, yet the effect of the open trade throughout Germany will probably diminish the business transacted at its fairs. We were at Frankfort during the last Michaelmas fair held there before its Union with the German league. The following is an extract from a statement drawn up on the spot. "The preparations, such as erecting waterproof booths, and importing various commodities into Frankfort, to be afterwards distributed over Germany, Switzerland, and other countries, were in activity several weeks previous to its commencement on the first day of September. Merchants, manufacturers, and dealers from most countries in Europe, to the number of from twelve to fifteen thousand, soon after appeared in the city, in which the cottons, woollens, earthenware, hardwares, and other merchandize of England; the silks, modes, and fancy wares of France; the printed cottons and embroidery of Switzerland; the cloths and merinoes of Saxony and Westphalia; wools from various parts of Germany and Hungary; and the wines of the Rhine and Moselle, had been previously forwarded and deposited. A surplus over previous years of British cotton and woollen manufactures have been imported, in the belief that Frankfort would soon gain the Germanic Union.

"The great fairs, common in days of yore to most parts of Europe, and still to many of the oriental nations, for the purpose of exchanging or selling, and purchasing merchandize of great value, and of general as well as of sumptuous use, have, since the ninth century, given splendor, influence, and renown to Frankfort.

"Here Jews, Gentiles, and Christians have congregated, and still continue to assemble; and although the restrictive system of Prussia offers the alternative of ruin or adhesion to this little but rich republic, yet its warehouses are now filled with Manchester cottons, Yorkshire and West of England cloths, Welsh flannels, Glasgow muslins, Paisley shawls, Liverpool crockery, Birmingham ironware, and Sheffield cutlery; with bales of American cotton, of Russian flax, and of German wool; with Virginia tobacco, West India sugars, and St. Domingo coffee.

"The hotels and lodging-houses are crammed with wool and wine buyers, and sellers of goods from England; with purchasers of English cotton-twist, of American cotton, and of dye-stuffs, and dyed woven goods from Switzerland, Baden, Bavaria, and Saxony; and with speculators of every *caste*, from the mountebank and musical Bohemian, to the manufacturer, merchant, and capitalist, who have gathered in from every corner of the German confederation and the east.

"The fair lately established at the town of Offenbach, also on the

Maine, and within the Prussian *cordon* in the grand duchy of Darmstadt, has risen in formidable opposition to that of Frankfort; as the goods sold at the fair of the latter are subjected to an immediate payment in money of the heavy duty imposed by the Prussian tariff, before those goods can enter any of the German states except Baden and Nassau; and as there remains no doubt that both the latter will be, however reluctant, compelled to give in their adhesion—Frankfort, isolated and environed by Prussian douaniers and barriers, must also join this commercial political league.

"These circumstances led us to have the opinions of the leading importers of British merchandize on this subject."

"In regard to the sales of merchandize manufactured in the United Kingdom, and imported and sold at the fair of Frankfort, the following information, given us by Mr. Kesler, the principal importer for many years of Manchester goods, deserves attention:

"'Even before the Prussian tariff,' said Mr. Kesler, 'was enforced and extended, the fabrics of Elberfeldt in Westphalia injured the trade in all low-priced English woollens. The tariff has destroyed it. The cambrics and fine muslins of Switzerland come, even at Frankfort, into fair competition, and at Offenbach completely, with those of Germany, supplant those of Glasgow and Manchester.

"'The cloths of Saxony, the coarse and fine goods of Elberfeldt, and the fabrics of Switzerland, draw vast numbers to purchase them at Offenbach, where they buy them usually on credit, and have not to pay any sum immediately in duty. This affords buyers the great and convenient advantage of retailing, or otherwise disposing of purchases made at that fair, before the day of payment arrives, whereas they have immediately, after purchasing at the fair of Frankfort, to pay a heavy duty, long before they reach their homes with the merchandize. The consequence is, that in most instances the merchant at Frankfort, in order to compete with the sales at Offenbach, pays the duty for the purchaser; thus greatly increasing his risk, and rendering the business far less profitable, and much more inconvenient.

"'Mr. Kesler also alluded to whether England could not insist on supplying Rhenish Germany, agreeably to the negotiations of 1814 and 1815, which stipulated "that in her commerce with the Rhenish and Lombardo-Venetian countries, she (England) should have the same privileges as before the war.

"'Vast quantities,' he added, 'of British goods used to be, until lately, purchased at our fair, and smuggled into Austria, Lombardy, and France. The present system will nearly destroy this trade, although it will be difficult to prevent illicit commerce along the extensive boundary of Germany; yet, when people get into *the habit*, either by necessity or free choice, of using the fabrics of any country, they will from custom and even prejudice prefer them. This would long have continued to be the case with the consumption of English goods in Germany; but now that the people, from necessity, will *get into the habit* of using other fabrics, they will also, by custom, become attached to, and prefer them.'"

From all the circumstances of this fair, and the rivalry with superior advantages as to warehousing and payment of duties at Offenbach, established within sight of, immediately above, on the opposite side of the river to Frankfort, it was evident that Frankfort should join the league. We were again at this city during the Easter fair of 1836. Our intelligent consul there, Mr. Koch, and several British importers, considered that the rivalry of the common woollens and cotton manufactures of Westphalia and other states of the Union, would, in cheapness, and the printed cottons of France would, by their superior designs, if no other cause existed, exclude those of England; and, that if the cheapness of German cottons and woollens of heavy weight, in proportion to value, did not compete with those of England, that the high duties (see the Tariff,) caused by their being levied by weight and not in regard to quality or value, would effectually exclude low-priced English fabrics. The printed cottons of Neufchatel being admitted at half duties, and those of Zurich and other places being, as was well-known, smuggled into Baden, Würtemberg, and Bavaria. The following extracts from Mr. Consul Koch's reports of the fairs of Frankfort will further illustrate the business transacted: "I have the honor to report the information I received respecting the sale of British manufactures at the Frankfort spring fair 1841, which ended last week. The quantity sold was, upon the whole, very inconsiderable, and mostly confined to fancy articles of tasty patterns; such as *mousseline-de-laine*, Valencias, buck-skins, coatings, a small quantity of flannel, and some jaconets, plain white, on which latter the duty is about 7*l.* 10*s.* the cwt. Calicoes, of patterns suiting the country-people's taste, have been sold at low prices, though with some profit, but can hardly bear competition with those made at Ettlingen, Grand Duchy of Baden, which manufactory produces the article of good quality and tasty patterns, and supplies the Prussian and other Germanic states with it, as well as with shirtings. Every new pattern made in England is sent over by letter, and imitated in a very short space of time. No sale for cambrics, now manufactured in Silesia.

"During the last Michaelmas fair, 1841, there was a tolerable sale for the following articles:—Valencias, lastings, woollen trousers, figured and printed merinoes, mousseline-de-laine, mohairs and Orleans. The lower sorts of woollens, such as coatings, castoreens, calmucks, Sibériennes, pilots, &c., will meet with no sale again, on account of the high duties on such inferior articles. Upon the whole, there is hardly any demand for British cotton goods, with the exception of quiltings, velvets, velveteens, with which the German manufactures cannot yet compete."

Unequal as the rates of duties in the tariff are, it appears evident that the natural competition of German manufactures in the home market, and not the tariff duties, forms the chief cause of exclusion, to any article of British manufacture: otherwise the fabrics of Germany and Switzerland would not compete with those of England, as they certainly do, in the markets of the United States and South America, and in the Mediterranean and Levant.

The sales of Rhenish, Franconian, and French wines are important at the fairs of Frankfort. The sale of books, though on a less extensive scale than at Leipzig, is also very important; and there is scarcely any article, colonial or European, that does not appear at the fairs of this mart.

The capital of bankers is vaguely estimated at 250 millions of florins, or somewhat more than 20 millions sterling, and the annual transactions in bills of exchange, at 140 millions of florins, or 11⅔ millions sterling. The usual current monies are thalers and florins; but four other values are still in use. 1. Money of the convention of 20 florins to the Cologne mark. 2. Money of 22 florins, seldom used except in paying octroi, or like duties. 3. Money of the empire of 24 florins to the mark. 4. Money of exchange of 6⅔ thalers, or 9⅓ florins of 20 for 11 florins of 24 to the Cologne mark. Merchants or bankers keep their books in thalers, and in florins of 24 to the mark.

Bills are drawn in various monies, and are payable 14 days after sight. The weights and measures, and monies of the states of the Union, although custom may, in ordinary transactions, adhere to ancient usages, will now become those of all the fairs of the country.

Leipzig Fairs.—Leipzig has been so long and so universally famed for its fairs, that we shall confine our statements to the years from 1832 to the present time, being the period during which Saxony has been united to the German league.

The fairs of Leipzig are held three times a year. The first and least important in January, the second or *jubilate*, third Monday after Easter, and the third in October. The population of the city is from 50,000 to 55,000, but the concourse of buyers and sellers during the fairs are considered to increase the whole number to 100,000. We visited Leipzig during the spring fair of 1836, and through the courtesy of the authorities, and of the principal publishers, and of several merchants, especially Mr. Behrens of Hamburg, and the Hanoverian Consul, Mr. Claus, we were enabled to obtain numerous details relative to the transactions of the fairs since the commencement of the Union of Customs.

The concourse assembled from different countries were, Germans from all the manufacturing districts and towns of the Union, and from the Hanse Towns and States which had not joined the league. English manufacturers and dealers; Dutch, Belgians, French, Swiss, Americans, Poles, (chiefly Jews) Russians, Galizians, (chiefly Jews from Brody) Italians, Greeks, Turks, Wallachians, Moldavians, Anatolians, Armenians, Georgians, and Persians. The latter, and the Asiatic dealers, were chiefly ready-money purchasers, and were generally rich men who had, to a great extent, monopolized the trade in the sale of European goods in the countries from whence they came. There were a few purchasers from South America, and one from Van Dieman's Land. The weight of the goods bought annually at the fairs of Leipzig is stated at from 250,000 to 270,000 centners, and the value estimated at from 16,000,000 to 20,000,000 thalers, or three millions sterling. The countries of production and manufactures are Saxony, and the states of the league, for woollen cloths, merinoes, calicoes, and printed cottons, damasks, linens, hosiery, hardwares, glasswares, wool, books, paper, some silks, leather, and manufactures of leather; England for white embroidered and printed cottons, cotton twist and thread, a few woollens, linen yarns, Birmingham and Sheffield wares; France for shawls, silks, modes, lace, veils, jewellery, and watches; Nuremberg and the Erzgebirge of Saxony for toys; Russia for glue, bristles, and cantharides; Austria and Bohemia for plated goods, glass, and fine cloths, shawls and embroidered goods

Switzerland for embroidery, clocks, watches, and printed cottons, especially Turkey reds, so much in demand for the east. British manufactured cottons and Birmingham wares were chiefly purchased for Persia, for Mesopotamia, and other places in the east, and more extensively by the Jews of Brody, to be smuggled in transit through that city into Russia.

The contraband trade from the states of the Union, and especially from Leipzig, is conducted on a systematic and extensive scale, into those countries where high duties and prohibitions of foreign goods exist. In this way the Poles and Russians are supplied abundantly with many articles of German, Austrian, British, French, and Swiss manufactures, the legal importation of which are absolutely prohibited, or practically so by high duties. Goods to be smuggled from Leipzig to foreign countries are, as to delivery, free of seizure, ensured at various rates, and seldom at more than 10 to 12 per cent. of the value.

The following are the weights of the principal articles imported to the Fairs of Leipzig during the year 1836.

ARTICLES.	Produce of Manufactures of the League.				Do. or Manufactures of Countries not in the League.			
	Prussia.	Saxony.	Other States.	Total.	Quantities which have paid Duty.	Quantities sold to be re-exported.	Quantities remaining unsold in Warehouses.	Total.
	q'ntals	q'ntals	q'ntals	q'ntals	q'ntals	q'ntals	q'ntals	q'ntals
Thread, not cotton twist.........	2,900	200	900	4,000	8,100	5,000	2,400	31,000
Instruments of all kinds.........	80	250	70	400	70	25	45	280
Skins and leather, unwrought....	17,000	4,500	4,500	26,000	260	25	115	800
Do wrought......	600	550	250	1,400	75	35	70	360
Earthenware and porcelain.. ...	200	950	50	1,200	120	70	210	800
Common hardwares, japanned wares, toys, &c................	6,000	3,500	2,500	12,000	1,750	700	1,050	7,000
Fine cutlery, jewellery, perfumery, and fancy wares..........	8,000	200	700	1,700	120	250	160	1,050
Woven cottons...................	13,000	20,000	2,000	35,000	3,800	23,000	20,200	94,000
Woven woollens..............	12,000	12,500	1,500	26,000	2,900	7,000	8,000	29,900
Woven linens.................	3,000	5,000	....	8,000	150	100	200	900
Silks.........................	750	200	250	1,200	550	15,000	1,150	19,900
Do mixed......................	550	200	650	1,400	400	700	400	3,000
Glasswares, crystals, mirrors, &c.	500	300	300	1,100	1,200	300	500	4.000
Total centners..........	57,380	48,350	13,670	119,400	19,495	52,205	35,520	192,990

The book fair opens immediately after the general fair. The book exchange, a spacious and beautiful structure, admirably placed for its destined use, was opened with ceremonial solemnity while we were at Leipzig, in May, 1836. It was built by the Society of German Publishers, which consists of more than 600 members. There are in this city above 110 publishing establishments, 23 great printing-houses, with 260 presses. There are also large foundries for the manufacture of printing characters and music characters;—oil-mills; several paper and other manufactories;—as those of musical, optical, and other instruments; of bronzes, hats, leather, and some hardwares. At the Easter fair 300 or more publishers assemble to sell and purchase, and to settle their accounts, from all parts of Germany, from Basel, Strasburg, Paris, London, Vienna, Pest, Athens, Warsaw, Amsterdam, Brussels, Stockholm, Copenhagen, Christiana, Riga, Dorpat, St. Petersburg, New-York, Boston, and Philadelphia.

The warehouses are commodious, and generally fireproof, having little or no wood in their construction; the roofs of each story being arched with stone. Its university, and its various scientific and literary institutions, its tribunal of commerce, its general exchange, savings-banks, bank of discount, and assurance companies, appeared to have been all well administered. The railroad, now complete from Dresden by Leipzig and Magdeburg to Berlin, and the various good post-roads diverging from Leipzig, extend to it the easy facility of communicating with other places.

A considerable trade in the furs of America and Russia centralizes in this town, and the special wool-fair, established in the month of June, is also, as well as the home fair, important. The legal weights and measures are those of the Union.

Credit sales are made on an extensive scale: losses are sustained, but not more frequently than on credit sales elsewhere. It is stated that on such sales to oriental merchants, losses by non-payment very seldom occur. Among the purchasers at the Leipzig fair the Moldavians and Wallachians are among the most extensive; next to them are the Jews of Poland and Galizia; English goods have been chiefly purchased by the Jew smugglers, and by the oriental merchants.

The following extracts of letters, written by a trustworthy authority, contain further information relative to the sales at the Leipzig fairs:

" The following particulars of our last Easter fair, I have (not without a great deal of difficulty, as I was anxious to get them as correct as possible) obtained from such authorities as to enable me to state as a positive fact, that the total quantity of goods imported for sale during the fair amounts to about 250,000 cwt., and is composed of

	*Centners.				†Thalers.
Silk goods, about	3,000,	at the average price of	1500	thalers, per centner,	4,500,000
Cotton goods "	90,000,	" "	120	"	10,800,000
Woollen do "	70,000, (150,000 pieces, woollen cloth included)	at the average price of	140	"	9,800,000
Leather, about	25,000,	" "	30	"	750,000
Linen, "	15,000,	" "	200	"	3,000,000
Articles of food "	17,000,	" "	50	"	850,000
Furs, "	20,000,	" "	100	"	2,000,000
Hardware "	10,000,	" "	100	"	1,000,000
	240,000			Total value	32,700,000

Or at 6⅔ thalers per pound sterling..............£4,905,000

N. B.—The Leipzig centner is equal to about 113 lbs. English.

" The estimate that about two-thirds of all these goods have been disposed of being a safe one, it results, that at a fair not entitled to be called very favorable, the total amount that changed hands is about 22,000,000 thalers, or 3,250,000 pounds sterling.

" Of the above 240,000 centners, not more than 70 to 80,000 cent-

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* 103·3 lbs. avoirdupoise per centner.

† 76 cents to the thaler.

ners, at the utmost, may be estimated to be foreign goods. The quantity by far the greatest is consequently produced and manufactured in the states of the Customs Union. This proportion of the goods was by no means of a heavy sale, while, generally speaking, English cotton goods moved off much slower than formerly. In some degree this may be accounted for by the absence of large foreign buyers, principally from Moldavia and Wallachia, where the last cold winter has had the effect to check the sale of such goods. English woollen goods went off much better, as, first of all, the duty on them is lower, and as, secondly, there are amongst them many articles which it is still either difficult or impossible to imitate in Germany.

"In former years there have been scarcely imported 100,000 centners of goods of all descriptions, even when the fairs were called large, and this was the case even immediately before the Customs Union. It is an undeniable fact, that the consumption increases every year, although many complaints are continually made by the manufacturers. But whether it increases in the *same degree* as the production, is a matter on which I must decline giving an opinion. Certain it is, that of some articles the production is carried too far, and I think I may name *twist*. It is but natural, therefore, that in England as well as in Germany, yarns pay badly. I cannot foresee the period when a change may be expected. With us, cotton-mills have almost no value. As a proof of this, I will only remark, that a very short time ago, a mill, originally bought, only four years ago, for 80,000 thalers, was sold for 18,000. Now, that one mill after the other is ruined, our manufacturers petition for another protecting duty of 4 thalers. But our governments, averse to such a step, have frankly answered, your mills have not been established on the ground of a protecting duty, and it is therefore your own business to take such measures as to enable you to compete with England.—*Leipzig, June* 13, 1841."

"In answer to your further inquiries, I beg to state that the quantity of English manufactured goods at our last Easter fair might be estimated at from 40,000 to 50,000 cwt. of all descriptions, and the total value at from 6,000,000 to 6,500,000 thalers, or about 950,000*l.* You will observe that this amount forms about one-fifth of the total estimated value of goods brought for sale at the late Easter fair, as stated in my letter of June 13. It is supposed that about one-half of all the English goods brought to the fair has been actually disposed of during its term.—*Leipzig, July* 4, 1841."

At the fair, in Easter, 1840, there was not one Italian purchaser, and but few Swiss and Poles: but as usual the Jews were numerous from southern Russia, Brody, and Austrian Galicia. The Persians of Tiflis proceeded from Leipzig to make their purchases of English goods at Hamburg. This is a great loss to the Saxons, as the orientals pay in money; 160,000 pieces of milled woollen cloths sold, chiefly Prussian and Saxon manufacture. The merinoes and Thibets of Saxony, the fine cloths called *lamas* for *mantles*, and cloths of mixed thread, wool, and cotton, have been nearly withdrawn. *Mousseline-de-laine*, and other similar goods, were in fair demand.

Braminas, a new description of cloth, and a woollen fabric printed or colored, for shawls and dressing-gowns, and light cloths of half wool, for pantaloons, were extensively sold. English, Swiss, and French cottons were rather extensively in demand; the former on account of their low prices to be carried in transit; the second for their superior dyes and quality, the third for their beautiful designs.

A new cotton-manufacture of Voigtland, being a checked muslin with bright silk threads, which impart to the cloth a silvery or golden appearance, were much sought after to be used as scarfs. Transparent Scotch muslins sold well. *Hosiery*, an article so very important to the Saxon manufacturers, was but little in request. *Silk manufactures*, figured thick silks, and cloths of silk and other material mixed, lately produced by a Jewish house in Berlin, were much sought after. The silks of Rhenish Prussia, Berlin, Anneberg, and Penig, in Saxony, and those of Zurich, competed successfully with those of France: the prices and quality of the former being inferior to those of France, cheapness alone created a demand for the German and Swiss in preference to the better silks of France. The silk ribbons of St. Etienne still maintained their pre-eminence in quality, price, and demand in the market.

Linens were purchased in small quantities for South America and Mexico. French clocks, watches, jewellery, real and artificial, were sold to a considerable value: but the clocks, watches and jewellery, and even the fine fire-arms of Germany, now compete with those of France. French books are complained of as being extensively pirated by the German printers. Silver money was as usual rare, gold coins were the monies in which cash payments were chiefly made. The Jews monopolized the trade in bullion and ingots. Prussian paper money was generally current. The wool fair of Leipzig, in June, 1840, was dull, the purchasers were chiefly for the German manufactures, there were few purchasers for England. The Leipzig Easter fair of 1841 was, in respect to sales and purchase, much the same as that of 1840. The Saxon and German manufacturers all complained of foreign competition, notwithstanding the enormous duties.

Breslau Fairs.—The fairs of this city are important and animated. Its central and convenient position upon the Oder, amidst the manufacturing and productive districts of Silesia, of which it is the capital and the entrepôt, and the advantages of inland navigation, and the roads leading from it to all parts of Germany, to Bohemia, Austria, Silesia, Poland, and Russia, have combined to render Breslau one of the most thriving manufacturing and commercial cities in Europe. It is alike an entrepôt for the fine and coarse woollen cloths, cottons, linens, silks, hardwares, glasswares, and wool, hemp, and flax of Silesia; for the wines of Hungary, and for the sugar, coffee, spices, and dye stuffs of the tropics. The oxen of the Ukraine and Moldavia, and the corn and cattle of Silesia and Posen, the produce of its own distilleries, tanneries, and type-foundries, find an equal and regular market at Breslau. It has four fairs annually; those beginning on the third Sunday in Lent, and on the first Sunday after Lady-day in September, are the most important.

Wool is one of the great staples of the Breslau fairs. The average quantities sold at the June fairs are about 7,000,000 lbs.

Frankfort-on-the-Oder.—Three fairs are held in this city. The first, or *Reminiscere*, in February or March; the second, or St. Margaret's, in July; the third, or St. Martin's, in November—every facility is extended to the merchants attending these fairs. The weight of German and of foreign goods brought to this city is stated at about 170,000 centners per annum. Woollen, cotton, linen, and silk manufactures; skins, hides, and leather; feathers, wool, hardwares, iron, porcelain, glass, are among the principal articles sold. The following table drawn up by Dieterici, shows the progress of German manufactures in excluding those of foreign production in the markets of Frankfort-on-the-Oder, and of Naumberg.

FRANKFORT-ON-THE-ODER.

Years.	Fairs.	Weight of Goods.			Total Yearly Quantities.			Proportions.	
		Foreign.	National.	Totals.	Foreign.	National.	Totals.	Foreign.	National.
1832	Reminiscere.	19,529	40,996	60,525	63,876	129,449	193,325	33.0	67.0
	Margaret ...	24,630	47,793	72,423					
	Martini	19,717	40,660	60,377					
1833	Reminiscere.	18,900	40.377	59,277	58,514	131,353	189,867	30.8	69.2
	Margaret ...	22,745	48,174	70,919					
	Martini	16,869	42,602	59,671					
1834	Reminiscere.	9,601	44,351	53.952	34,662	143,362	178,024	19.5	80.5
	Margaret ...	13,540	52,501	66,041					
	Martini	11,521	46,510	58,011					
1835	Reminiscere.	11,561	44,718	56,279	33,513	143,260	176,773	19.0	81.0
	Margaret ...	12,592	53,682	66,274					
	Martini	9,360	44,860	54,220					
1836	Reminiscere.	9,686	44,844	54,530	30,386	149,162	179,548	16.9	83.1
	Margaret ...	11,646	57,988	69,634					
	Martini	9,054	46,330	55,384					
				NAUMBERG.					
1832	Spring	7,852	9,616	17,468	9,959	17,777	27,680	36.0	64.0
	Autumn.....	2,107	8,105	10,212					
1833	Spring	1,862	7,737	9,599	3,097	14,680	17,780	17.4	82.6
	Autumn.....	1,235	6,943	8,179					
1834	Peter Paul's Fair......	710	10,724	11,434	710	10,724	11,434	36.2	63.8
1835	Ditto........	20	6,927	6,747	20	6,727	6,747	.3	99.7
1836		62	6,558	6,620	62	6,550	6,620	.9	99.1

The fair of St. Margaret, 1841, at Frankfort-on-the-Oder, is reported to have been very animated, and the number of strangers who transacted business there, was above 11,000, bringing with them about 90,000 centners of merchandize. The price of wool was greater than for some years before, and about 860,000 lbs. were sold. German woollen manufactures were those which commanded the market. Some English cottons, however, still found a certain degree of favor. 1300 horses were brought to this fair, and all those for draught sold well. Among the other fairs of the Union, are those of Berlin, Magdeburg, Stettin, Königsberg, Dresden, Posen, Landesberg, and Stralsund; Schweidnitz and Brieg in Silesia, and Sprenberg in Brandenburg, are the other principal wool fairs. At the *small fairs*, which are held in almost every little town, the business is mere that of retail trade in the booths fitted up for the purpose. The removal of the customs barriers between the several states of Germany, and the consequent facility of passing with commodities over the several frontiers without, has greatly favored the *small fairs* of the country.

The quantities of wool sold in the wool market of Berlin and Breslau, from 1832 to 1837, with the prices, were—

AT BERLIN.

Years.	Brought for sale.	Sold.		Unsold.	Price per Centner.		
		Forhome Use.	For Export.		Fine.	Middling.	Ordinary.
	centners.	centners.	cwt.	cwt.	D.		
1832..........	22,966	9,854	11,528	1,584	85 to 125	67½ to 80	45 to 67½
1833..........	22,210	9,621	10,361	2,228	70 to 110	63 to 70	40 to 66
1834..........	37,202	16,940	16,004	4,258	105 to 140	85 to 95	42½ to 72½
1835..........	45,339	18,558	22,928	3,853	100 to 125	82 to 96	40 to 75
1836..........	48,357	17,972	22,270	8,115	105 to 120	80 to 100	36 to 75
1837..........	68,169	41,705	8,083	18,381	105 to 115	60 to 70	33 to 60.
1838..........	72,000	57,000		1 ,000			

AT BRESLAU.

Brought for Sale.			Prices per Centner.					
			One Shearing.			Two Shearings.		
		cwt.	fine.	middling.	ordinary.	fine.	middling.	ordinary.
1832..	Spring....	36,938	95 to 125	75 to 80	60 to 68	62 to 65	58 to 60	52 to 55
	Autumn...	8,631	90	....	....	65..72	62 to 66	58 to 63
1833..	Spring....	39,040	110 to 150	80 to 100	70 to 75	75..85	70 to 72	65 to 68
	Autumn...	7,839	86 to 100	78 to 83	68 to 80	65..70	.......,	....
1834..	Spring....	44,337	100 to 106	85 to 95	75 to 80	85..95	75 to 80	65 to 70
	Autumn...	7,809	90 to 95	85 to 90	50 to 55	80..86	65 to 70	....
1835..	Spring....	51,103	95 to 160	85 to 90	78 to 80	73..84	65 to 68	58 to 60
	Autumn...	9,900	85 to 98	75 to 85	60 to 65	80..85	65 to 70	....
1836..	Spring....	48,928	95 to 155	86 to 92	65 to 76	82..92	75 to 80	70 to 72
	Autumn...	3,443	80 to 110	70 to 80	60 to 69	......	....	....
1837....	Spring....	50,708	75 to 125	70 to 75	60 to 70	55 65	50 to 55	42 to 50

The comparative prices of wools in the Saxon markets in 1838 and 1839 were,

	1838. Dollars.		1839. Dollars.	
Super electoral per centum......		125........	120 to 122½	
Electoral..........................	100 to 115........		97	100
Fine	90	108........	85	100
Middling fine..................	75	90........	70	80
Middling	55	75........	52½	67½
Ordinary..........................	38	50........	40	47½

From an official report of the Berlin, June wool fair, in 1839, it appears that 72,000 centners, or 7,920,000lbs. were offered for sale. The prices were (in thalers of 3*s.*) per each centner of 110 lbs. as follows: viz.—

	1838. Thalers per centner.		1839. Thalers per centner.	
Superfine	125		120 to	122½
Extra fine	100 to	115	97	110
Fine	90	108	85	100
Middle fine	75	90	70	80
Middle	55	75	52½	67½
Ordinary	38	50	40	47½

"Of the whole quantity offered for sale, 57,000 centners may be estimated as having been sold, and 15,000 centners as not having found sale, and which consist chiefly of middle fine, middle, and fine wools, which have been deposited here in the hands of Commissioners.

"The number of purchasers from the interior of the country, and from foreign countries, was greater this year than it has ever previously been. A manufacturer from Norköping, in Sweden, likewise appeared for the first time at this market.

"The English showed the least inclination to buy, and particularly at the commencement.* Good conditioned wools found ready purchasers at the best prices, whereas those that were either ill-washed or were otherwise blemished, were in some cases sold under the lowest rates above reported, as this year's shearing and washing turned out, upon the whole, very satisfactory."

Amongst the wools chiefly distinguished for the manner in which they were washed, were those of the Domain Prillwitz, belonging to H. R. H. Prince Augustus of Prussia. They had undergone the ordinary process of washing by immersion, no artificial means having been employed to prepare them.

The linen fairs of *Damm* and *Stargard* in Pomerania; the horse fair of St. George-Gnesen, in Posen; and the fairs for general merchandize and produce at Cologne, Düsseldorf, Aix-la-Chapelle, Mayence, Munich, Manheim, and Stuttgardt, are all fairs at which extensive purchases and sales are made.

The fairs of the Union are regulated by special laws, to which all who frequent them must conform. Great facilities are afforded to those who bring foreign goods to these fairs, especially to Frankfort-on-the-Maine, Leipzig, and to Frankfort-on-the-Oder. Foreign goods on entering those towns only pay duty when entered for home consumption. The importer is debited the duty in the custom-house books when the goods enter, takes them to private or public warehouses, exposes them for sale, receives credit for all those sold for re-exportation, passed in transit, or withdrawn from the fair, and pays duty only for the actual quantity sold for consumption within the Union of Customs.

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* Unless it were wools brought in from Hungary to be re-exported; the export duty on German wool of six shillings per 110 lbs., forms almost a prohibition to the purchase of German wool for the British market.

KENTUCKY COTTON BAGGING.

We have heretofore noticed the subject of the Kentucky cotton bagging made of hemp, and proved that this article, so important to the South for enwrapping their cotton, had, through the effects of the tariff, become cheaper than it had ever been known—its present price being about nine cents; and that bale rope had fallen in the same proportion. We have now an opportunity of giving additional proof of this, from the recent report of the Commissioner of the Patent Office, and moreover to establish the fact, that upon two trials had in 1845, American water-rotted hemp has proved of superior quality and strength to Riga hemp of a quality considered equivalent, which did not stand the test.

The attention of our readers is earnestly solicited to the following letters detailing the experiments, taken from Doc. No. 140 of the House of Representatives.

HEMP.

Louisville, November 7, 1845.

Dear Sir: I received your letter of 31st ultimo on yesterday. I cheerfully comply with your request, as far as I can, to furnish you with statistical information in relation to the culture and manufacture of hemp.

I know nothing as to the culture of hemp east of the Alleghany mountains; but I suppose it to be so inconsiderable as to be of no importance in a report of the character you suggest.

I put down the following in round sums as the product of the few western states where it is chiefly grown—viz:

Kentucky in 1844*	22,500	tons.
Missouri in 1844	12,500	
Tennessee in 1844	1,500	
Ohio, Indiana and Illinois in 1844	500	
	37,000	

Which is thus consumed:

Kentucky, for bagging and bale rope	15,000	tons.
Tennessee, do. do.	1,500	
Missouri, do. do.	4,500	
Ohio, Illinois and Indiana, for bagging and bale rope	1,000	
Into bagging and bale rope	22,000	
Consumption of the various towns on the Ohio river, for cordage, lines, twine, &c., say	1,500	
Exported to the eastern cities, say	5,000	
Exported to Europe	100	
Unsold in the hands of farmers	8,400	
Thus exhibiting a surplus product of	37,000	

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* Believed to be for 1845.

The experiments made of sending hemp to Europe did not succeed —netting the shippers but about $40 per ton. This is caused, in part, by the heavy expenses consequent upon the shipment and sale; but mainly because it comes into competition with Riga Rein hemp, which can be afforded in England at $140 to 150 per ton of our currency, because England levies only a nominal duty of five shillings per ton on it. This hemp is worth intrinsically $60 to $70 per ton more than Kentucky or Missouri dew-rotted hemp, for cordage, &c., which reduces the market value of the latter, there, far below what it is worth in the United States.

Very many farmers have made the experiment of water-rotting; but owing to bad success in watering, and worse success in selling, they have nearly abandoned it. None of those who grow hemp largely will water-rot; it is only those who have not slaves, and who grow but a few acres, who will water-rot.

That sent to the eastern cities is used chiefly in the manufacture of cordage, lines, twine, &c.

Kentucky	manufactures of	bagging,	per annum	12,000,000 yds.
Tennessee	do.	do.	do.	1,000,000
Missouri	do.	do.	do.	2,000,000
Ohio and Illinois	do.	do.	do.	1,000,000
New-York, New-Jersey and Louisiana manufacture of bagging, per annum				500,000
				16,500,000

Kentucky	manufactures of	bale rope,	per annum	12,000,000 lbs.
Tennessee	do.	do.	do.	1,500,000
Missouri	do.	do.	do.	5,000,000
At the east	do.	do.	do.	5,000,000
				23,500,000

This amount of bagging and bale rope is sufficient to cover about 2,600,000 bales of cotton.

The price of hemp, bagging, and bale rope has declined almost in the ratio of their increased production: thus, in 1835, with a crop of 7,000 to 8,000 tons in all the western states, it was $10 to $12 per cwt., bagging 35 cents per yard, and rope 12 to 13 cents per pound. In 1840, the product had increased 50 per cent., when the prices were: hemp $9 per cwt., bagging 25 cents per yard, and rope 10 cents per pound. Since then, under the stimulating influence of the tariff of 1842, the products are four or five times the amount that they were in 1835, and the prices now are $3 per cwt. for hemp, 8 or 9 cents per yard for bagging, and 3 to 4 cents per pound for bale rope. These prices do not remunerate grower or manufacturer; and, were either compelled to pay 6 per cent. interest on the capital employed, it would be ruinous.

You will observe that I have before stated that there is a surplus of hemp unsold in the hands of farmers of 8,400 tons; besides this, there is a vast quantity of unsettled land in the western country, suitable for hemp growing, which is fast filling up with a hemp-growing population. At present we consume more than half of the hemp that is grown, in the manufacture of bagging and bale rope; which cannot be increased, unless by increase of the cotton crop, the very low price of which would indicate that it cannot and will not be increased. The whole amount of the crop of hemp of the western states, that is consumed in the manufacture of cordage, lines, &c., is about 6,000 tons. What is to be done with the present and annually increasing surplus? Europe, we see, will not buy of us at remunerating prices.

If the growers would water-rot, and our naval and commercial marine be supplied wholly with it, there would be no difficulty. But how is this to be effected? But in one way: government must set the example in its use, and should not only establish agencies in the west for its purchase in the raw state, but should establish factories to make the cordage—say one in this place and one in St. Louis; these two points, by direct water communication, would be easily accessible to all the hemp-growing region. Here all the tow could readily be sold to bagging and rope manufacturers; for such is the improvement in machinery, that tow can now be more cheaply manufactured into bagging than best hemp could be five years ago. A majority of the farmers would water-rot portions of their crop, if they had a market at home for it, where they could be assured of obtaining $120 per ton; which, you are aware, is $60 to $80 per ton less than is paid for Russian hemp. The cordage can be manufactured here as cheap as at the east, and the cost of transportation to *any* port of the United States would not exceed $20 per ton; but the farmers will not water-rot so long as ninety-nine hundredths of them are ignorant of the modus operandi, nor while the market is so distant from them as Boston, &c., and while the inspection is uncertain, and returns more uncertain.

Your letter did not invite the last paragraph; but I hope you will not consider it obtrusive, and also superfluous, inasmuch as your position brings you in contact with every matter or thing for the promotion of the interests of the artisan and agriculturalist.

If what I have written should be of any service to you, as a small mite, in making such a report as will develop the resources of this great country, and be the means of enlightening our law-makers and pointing them to some interests which need encouragement, I shall be amply compensated for the few minutes I have expended.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

THOS. S. FORMAN.

Edmund Burke, Esq.,
Commissioner of Patents, Washington, D. C.

P. S.—It is perhaps proper to say that I have been a grower and manufacturer of hemp for fifteen years.

AMERICAN HEMP.

In the Courier of yesterday morning we stated that we had seen at the store of Messrs. James Anderson & Co.—the office of the Kentucky hemp agency, under the direction of Mr. Lewis Saunders—a number of specimens of American and Russian hemp, and cordage manufactured from them; and also a machine for testing the strength of the cordage. Yesterday experiments were made upon this machine, the interesting results of which we give below, from Mr. Saunders, the agent. It will be seen from the record that the American hemp not only does not suffer by a comparison with the Russian hemp, but that, in the tests of the larger cordage, it sustained a much greater weight than the Russian hemp. These facts are of deep interest to western hemp culturists, and to the entire country. They show conclusively that as good an article (if not better) of water-rotted hemp can be furnished by the farmers of the valley of the Mississippi as can be obtained from Russia, from whence our government heretofore have obtained all their naval supplies of hemp.

We understand that the mode of curing hemp by the Messrs. Anderson is peculiar. It is neither steamed nor water-rotted, but broken from the stack. The samples of their hemp which we saw, cured by their process, were very superior in appearance to the Russian water-rotted, and we believe much stronger.

[From the Louisville Courier, May 17.

HEMP AGENCY FOR KENTUCKY,
Louisville, May 16, 1845.

Commodore Morris, head of the bureau of construction and equipment, caused to be sent to the agency a very perfect apparatus for the purpose of testing the quality of hemp; also a box containing Riga Rein Hemp, and a box containing American water-rotted hemp, as samples for examination and comparison. The apparatus and samples of hemp were sent from the Boston navy yard, and arrived here in October last. The object of the department is to give information to the growers and dealers of hemp. By these samples and tests, bidders for the supply of the navy can, with more certainty, submit their proposals.

I caused four parcels of hemp to be accurately weighed, of twenty-five pounds each, and delivered to Mr. Till, (a ropemaker of this place, who learned his trade in Boston,) with directions to make up each parcel separate into 1¾ inch rope, and into yarns.

No. 1. Twenty-five pounds American water-rotted hemp, sent from the navy-yard, Boston.

No. 2. Twenty-five pounds Riga Rein hemp, sent from the navy yard, Boston.

No. 3. Twenty-five pounds cured and prepared by Mr. James Anderson of this place, intended for naval purposes.

No. 4. Twenty-five pounds of a good lot of Kentucky dew-rotted hemp.

The waste and tow returned by Mr. Till from No. 1, was eleven pounds; from No. 2, six and a half pounds; from No. 3, six pounds; from No. 4, ten pounds.

A piece of bolt rope, intended for 1¾ inch, made of yarns running 26, was put to the test.

No. 1 broke or parted at 2,705 pounds.
Same of No. 2 broke or parted at 2,555 do.
Same of No. 3 broke or parted at 2,940 do.
of No. 4 (of 1$\frac{6}{10}$ inch) at 2,415 do.

Three-thread spun yarn of No. 1 broke at 400 pounds; of No. 2 at 365 pounds; of No. 3 (hard twisted,) at 362 pounds; of No. 4 at 450 pounds.

Marline two-thread—No. 1 broke at 132 pounds; No. 2 broke at 135 pounds; No. 3 (hard twisted) at 112 pounds; No. 4 at 155 pounds.

One-thread, yarns running twenty-six—No. 1 broke at 222 pounds; No. 2 (one-thread spun yarn running twenty-six) broke at 108 pounds; No. 3 (same) at 140 pounds; No. 4 (same) at 190 pounds.

Further trials and tests may give different results. They will be made and published.

LEWIS SAUNDERS, *Hemp Agent.*

Second trial of Hemp.

Mr. Saunders, the government hemp agent, made a second trial of the comparative strength of different kinds of hemp, with a result again favorable to the American article. We are glad to learn that similar experiments are to be reported, and that no efforts are to be wanting to settle fully and definitely the comparative merits of the American and foreign articles.

Mr. Saunders has applied the term "Rhodian" to the hemp prepared by Mr. James Anderson by heat, without rotting, called by Mr. Hawes, in his certificate, "Humbuggery," from the name of the place where it is prepared:

KENTUCKY HEMP AGENCY,
Louisville, June 9, 1845.

A second testing, proving the strength of three sorts of hemp, (by the government apparatus,) was made to-day, in the presence of a number of highly intelligent gentlemen.

To Mr. Hawes, a ropemaker of this place, were delivered twenty-five pounds No. 1 American water-rotted hemp, twenty-five pounds No. 2 Riga Rein, (these two parcels are fair selections out of the two boxes of hemp sent to this agency from the navy-yard at Boston, for comparison with Kentucky production,) and twenty-five pounds No. 3 Rhodian hemp. The latter was cured by heat; the method of doing it will hereafter be communicated to the department by Mr. James Anderson, of this city.

Mr. Hawes was requested to make bolt-rope of each parcel of hemp, as near 1¾ inch in circumference as he could, to spin the yarns uniformly alike, and to make and lay the rope the same way.

Ten feet in length of each number was cut off and accurately weighed.

No. 1 American water-rotted, ten feet weighed fourteen and three-quarter ounces, measured in circumference 1$\frac{7}{10}$ inch, parted, at 2,940 pounds.

No. 2 Russia, ten feet weighed fourteen and three-fourths ounces, measuring in circumference $1\frac{8}{10}$ inch, parted at 2,218 pounds.

No. 3 Rhodian, (Anderson's,) ten feet weighed thirteen and one-fourth ounces, measured in circumference $1\frac{6}{10}$ inch, parted at 2,440 pounds.

Lewis Saunders, *Hemp Agent.*

There will be required many trials before we can designate a standard, but a standard must be established in order to compete, effectively, with the foreign article. In the language of Commodore Morris, we ought to be exporters instead of importers of hemp.

The following is the certificate of Mr. Hawes, who manufactured the rope on which the above experiments were made:

Louisville, June 9, 1845.

In the three lots of hemp presented to me, I found the water-rotted produced more tow than either of the three, and the "Humbuggery" [Rhodian] less, in the same mode of hatcheling.

Respectfully yours,

E. W. Hawes.

Mr. L. Saunders, *United States Agent.*

In order to make the comparison in the preceding experiments fair, it is necessary to reduce these results to what they would have been with ropes of the same size. We may assume the compactness of the twist and the weight of the fibre to be nearly the same; as the difference in the circumference of the ropes accounts very nearly for the difference in their weights. We shall suppose, then, that each rope had been $1\frac{8}{10}$ inch in circumference. The strength, by a well known principle, is directly proportional to the area of a transverse section; and these areas are as the squares of the circumferences. Take the case of the Rhodian hemp. If $1\frac{6}{10} \times 1\frac{6}{10}$ gives 2,440, what will $1\frac{8}{10} \times 1\frac{8}{10}$ give? The result is 3,108.

Reducing the result of No. 1 the same way, gives 3,296. So that the experiment may be stated as follows:

No. 1 American water-rotted,	3,296
No. 2 Riga Rein,	2,218
No. 3 Rhodian,	3,108

The difference between the first and third is not more than might be expected in different specimens of the same kind of hemp; whilst the difference between them and the second or Russian hemp is very considerable, and much to the advantage of the former. These experiments will be continued; and we shall have more to say on their importance hereafter.

TRIP TO THE COAL MINES OF VIRGINIA.

Having in our last number given an account of the coal trade of the state of Pennsylvania. We avail ourselves of an article which we find in a very recent number of the Richmond Whig, to take some extracts from it, giving an account of the Richmond coal mines. All accounts of the industry employed in home pursuits, come within our province to record; but we are always rejoiced when we find a statement of progress making in the ancient dominion, or any other southern state—fully believing, as we do, that nothing will ever relieve them from their present depressed condition, but a resort to the useful arts, and no articles have a more extended application to them than coal and iron, with which the state of Virginia abounds. We are happy also to know, from the recent exhibition at the great fair at Washington, that coal and iron are not the only home products connected with the useful arts in which that rich state is at work. The articles manufactured of cotton, wool, &c., which Virginia produced at the fair, were, as we have stated in our account of it in our last number, highly creditable to her skill, and we confidently look forward to the day, (we hope not distant,) when the immense riches she possesses in her raw materials, will be multiplied to an extent not yet dreamt of, if our legislators at Washington do their duty in securing to the country the present wise system of protection to American labor.

Chesterfield County, Virginia,
June 25, 1846.

Although Richmond was familiar to my eyes in childhood, and still more so now in manhood, yet when the stage reached the bridge, and while crossing, there was something in its appearance, which this view gave, that riveted my attention to it with unusual interest. The scenery below and above the bridge was surpassingly picturesque. On the bank of the Richmond side, along which has bounded and bubbled the oozy gurglings of the James River from "time out of mind," affording water-power of the greatest magnitude only to run to waste, I beheld factories towering upwards, on which I, as a Virginian, gazed with the highest delight. I could not help believing, and still believe, that they afford but the opening dawn of that new creation of human progress, which shall stretch along this noble river, as unerring guides, to indicate the advancing intelligence and industry of a people almost hitherto asleep, and to minister to the wants and prosperity of a poor population now eager for support.

I may hereafter say something about the city, but not just now—nor do I care to say anything of Manchester at this time. After getting fairly on the road, my mind led me very naturally to take observation of the condition of the farms. I saw no great things to boast of—nothing to exult over. Many of the farms were in moderate, perhaps good, agricultural condition—yet in my judgment, none as well as they might and ought to be. If the oft-repeated declaration, that agriculture is the "*blessed employment of man,*" be true, and that, next to making peace with our Maker for the hopes of the future, it should form the chief delight of man, why should so many of these farms appear so cheerless, and be managed so slovenly? Perhaps the time necessary to keep them neat and in proper condition, may be spent with the politicians. A poor employment, when the cultivation of the soil, and the improvement of their farms, is sacrificed to it. And they should have learned by this time, that nothing can be made at it. Heaven has made us all with the same capacities and powers; and the road to prosperity, if we take it, is as certain to us as to others. The farms are too large, and too slovenly managed, for any great expectation. It would be better if the most of the farms in this county, and indeed almost all over Virginia, were cut into quarters, and worked by four persons, instead of one. It would rapidly change the character of agriculture, if some of the large property-holders were to go North, and get a small company of industrious Germans, and sell a part of their estates to them at a fair price, and on reasonable time. This would be the best operation they have ever transacted, both for themselves and their state. The balance they would retain, would bring more than the whole is now worth.

On the road-side I saw large tracts of land which had been "turned out," as it is called—or, in other words, abandoned, to resume its wild state again—land enough, which had been formerly cultivated, to support a population of some hundreds. From what I have seen and heard, I am convinced that there is now wild, or "turned out," lands enough in this county, to maintain one half the number who reside in it. If the same calculation will hold good for other counties, for one half of the state, the amount of population which is an actual loss to us, will be near three hundred thousand. This don't look as if agriculture had much "blessed employment" in it for the men who have trotted away somewhere else, and left these lands to be "turned out." I have no doubt it is a "blessed employment," where there is any thing made of it. But when the fences are put up in the most lazy and troublesome form, and the briars and weeds grow too thick to let a rabbit through,—and in other places suffer the lands to be worn out by bad treatment, there is not much blessing in such a business. Many of the lands I saw, reminded me of the saying of the priest, "prayers won't help here; manure alone can save them." There are some redeeming spots, however. I noticed a few which spoke volumes for the good sense and usefulness of their owners. Give each county but a few thousand such men, and the effect will soon show itself, in the increased crops that will be gathered. There is, however, an evident change in this county —a change for the better.

After having taken dinner with the president of the company, I dressed in a style to me perfectly original, and descended into the pits, a distance of over seven hundred feet. No one has any conception of the apparently perilous attempt in going down these shafts, until he has experienced it. The distance and the view descending are truly frightful. But the operation is an every day occurrence without accident, and you feel perfectly safe in following where others go, on whom you can rely. My imagination had very often partially prepared me for the state of things in coal mines, which I saw here; but a real and an imaginary state of things are totally different. In passing along the various channels and routes by the aid of lamps, you experience a natural restraint on your feelings, and a sincere awe of mind, that is not altogether pleasant. The gloominess of the place and the dread silence of the scene make one sometimes feel truly his helplessness. But there is no danger and no terror in the place. It is the feeling of the novice, uninitiated in such scenes, and soon wears away, to give room to more pleasant reflections.

Along all the main channels, lamps are hung upon the walls to afford the necessary light to work and travel by. The cars drawn by mules are always rapidly passing and repassing to and from the place where the coal is got to the shafts. Rails are laid down upon all the main routés, and the cars drawn by steam from above where it is necessary, and mules underneath, except down inclined planes, and there they choose to go themselves, without any body's help. The mules fatten while in the pits; they are the healthiest, plumpest, and best looking animals of the kind I ever saw. The operatives all look well, and seem to feel well, which is very good evidence that the place, instead of being unfavorable to health, is just the reverse. The pits are perhaps the best ventilated in the world. The different channels through which the air circulates before it passes out of the shafts, embrace a circumference of about eight miles. It moves at the rate of one hundred feet every ten seconds, which is a fraction over eight minutes to the mile. It is kept in a rarified state by a six foot furnace, which consumes fifty bushels of coal every twenty-four hours. The pit is unusually dry for one so deep and extensive.

The superintendence of the mines is under the direction of Mr. Thomas Marshall, whom they call, sometimes, "the Judge." He takes great delight in this vocation, and is every way competent to discharge its duties. He has been in this business since he was eleven years of age—having served his time in the Pearcey Main mines, near Newcastle, upon Tyne, in the county of Northumberland, in England, with the celebrated John Buddle. Either his aids or himself make daily visits to every part and verge of the mines with the Davy Safety lamp, to see whether the pit is free from gas. I passed myself, in the two days I was down with Mr. M. and his aids, to every department of the mines, without experiencing the least inconvenience. The greatest caution to prevent the pits from becoming foul and taking fire is exercised. One thing is reduced to a dead certainty—all persons here are of the same color—the Gumbos look just as white as the pale faces. I found, when I had ascended the top and had a fair view of myself, that I was ring-streaked and speckled, and those varieties were made of many shades and many colors.

At many of the excavations made for coal, slate rock has been found which exhibits impressions of fish, fern, bark and knobs of wood in abundance. There is strong evidence to believe that the circumference in which this coal is located was once a lake. This subject, however, I am not here disposed to discuss. They were blasting in various parts of the pits while I was down. The explosions sometimes were grand and terrific, and shook the earth with great power; while the reverberations echoed with deafening effect through every department of the mines. The laborers have each their proper duty to perform—some are employed to dig coal—some to blast rock, and others to attend upon the shafts, fill and manage the cars, &c. There are about two hundred in all—made up of Americans, English, Scotch, free blacks and slaves. Though politically and naturally there is a difference in these operatives, yet every tub here stands on its own bottom—but when they get out of the pits they assume to each other their proper attitude. The free blacks in these pits are very respectable, and make money for themselves and children. It is a pity that a great number of the free blacks in the state will not or cannot be made to follow suit, instead of being paupers to the counties. One of these free hands tried the North, but found that he could do better at home, and after wasting $150 as an experiment, begged to come back, which he finally did at the expense of the president of the company. Many of the slaves lay up $50 per annum for work done out of the regular hours.

The colored operatives have a meeting-house and a church organized here. On sabbath last three professed to have " new hearts and new hopes." The place is in a high degree moral and orderly, and affords conclusive evidence that all we need, to change the whole aspect of affairs in this state and to better our condition, is the WILL to change our WAYS.

The Mid-Lothian mines have been in operation periodically about eleven years. They have four shafts, sunk and sinking—but as yet only two are employed in getting out the coal. The coal is said to be, for all practical purposes, equal, and for many uses, superior to any coal in Europe or America. This is the opinion of Professor Silliman and other distinguished chemists, and those who are daily using coal in the large establishments of our own, and Northern and Eastern states. They excavate and bring into market over one million of bushels per year. The quantity shipped by all the mines in this neighborhood from the city per annum, is about 3,000,000 of bushels, and valued at $375,000. The amount of vessels in constant employment in this business is about forty, with a tonnage of say four thousand, and employing some two hundred and seventy hands. This subject requires a little examination, and I solicit attention to it.

The amount of capital employed in all the mines around Richmond, is from twelve to fifteen hundred thousand dollars. The value of the coal worked out per annum, is from $450,000 to $500,000. The sum the Mid-Lothian Company expends per year for labor, groceries, agricultural products, &c. &c., amounts to about $75,000, and the rest to $200,000, making in all $275,000. This money is distributed in the city of Richmond, among all kinds of business and professional men—in the country to the farmers, poor females and mechanics for work, and to over eighteen hundred persons who are directly and indirectly dependent upon the operation of these mines for a subsistence. Allow that there are $2,500,000 invested in and around Richmond, in such manufactures as require the use of coal, and that their products amount to say $2,000,000 per annum, and that they distribute yearly to their ten thousand men, women and children, who directly or indirectly depend upon them for subsistence, $1,000,000, what must be the actual loss to all classes, the city at large, and the country, by the stoppage of these mines? The coal mines around Richmond keep in active operation a capital of $50,000,000 over the Union, and constitute the main agent to the support of one hundred thousand persons—near one seventh of the entire white population of the state.

The commerce of the city alone is indebted for its prosperity to these coal mines more than it is possible to calculate. There is no telling how many houses have been put up in the city of Richmond and vicinity, from funds arising out of these pits;—how many firms in the many departments of business depend directly or indirectly upon these mines to carry on their operations, and for support. The amount of capital which they put in motion is several millions, and the number of persons directly or indirectly depending on them may be put down in round numbers at ten thousand. Every man who knows any thing of the present tariff and the one proposed in lieu of it, knows that while the former lays a duty of $1,75 a ton, and is hardly sufficient to make mining a profitable business, the duty which the proposed one lays, of three cents a bushel, will and must prostrate the business effectually. Should the proposed tariff pass, it would be more destructive to the prospects of every man, than the overthrow, by conflagration, of one-half of the city.

In 1841 and '42, when the English were sending their coal to the United States by ship loads, from the license afforded by the Compromise Tariff, the pits and yards of the coal mines in Richmond and its vicinity were groaning with abundance, and no one was willing or able to buy. Now, while we are exulting over the repeal of the Corn laws, and which is just about as much use to us as the music of a tin kettle, the tariff laid upon Virginia coal in England is 20 cents to the bushel, just about twice as much as the article sells for at any point of the compass in the Union. The English lay it on to us still "*worser* and *worser*," as Sawney says, by their tariff on tobacco.

Those politicians who have been sent to Washington to make laws for us, are now hard at work to unmake one, the wisdom and benefit of which to the whole country they have not the judgment to comprehend or appreciate, and if they had, they have not the justice to acknowledge. No set of men who professed to be Tariff makers, either for revenue or protection, would ever lay a duty on the bushel of coal instead of the ton, who understood any thing of their business. It is now on the ton, and the duty is regulated by some fixed standard. No one knows what a bushel is, in coal. For instance, coal shipped to Washington falls short of the Richmond measure 10 per cent.—to Baltimore it overruns 5 per cent.—to Philadelphia it falls off 12 per cent. —to New-York it overruns 5 per cent., and all east of that it falls short from 10 to 20 per cent. How is it possible that from this state of the case you can regulate the duty on coal equally by the bushel? This very fact led the congress of 1842, through a prominent gentleman in this neighborhood, to levy the duty upon the ton. A tariff which will let live by sufferance other mines in the United States, won't let live the miners around Richmond by sufferance or any other way. It costs more to reach it—more to get it to Richmond by the rail-road, and more to a market, than other miners have to encounter.

This neighborhood seems to have undergone a regeneration since these mines have been in operation. The Mid Lothian and English Pit Companies' houses, fixtures and laborers, with the rail-road, make up quite a respectable town. Within the circumference of four miles round the neighborhood it is thickly settled. Many of the laborers have their gardens, which they work for the purpose of raising vegetables for themselves and to carry to market.—This is not confined solely to the whites and free blacks, but the slaves enjoy this benefit. This region is eminently healthy, and all things will "work together for good," both in a temporal and spiritual way to all who reside in it, if Congress shall not turn the cold-shoulder to the whole country by a repeal of one of the best laws on the statute book.

STATISTICS OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK.

The returns of the census of the state of New-York, for the year 1845, taken by the authorities of the state, having been completed and printed, we are now enabled to present a variety of important and interesting facts relative to the population, resources, and increase of the empire state. While examining the valuable statistical tables put forth in this official document, we cannot but regret that we have not the same facilities for displaying the varied resources and interests of all the states in the Union, which might be the case if a similar spirit of enterprise and inquiry with that of New-York, influenced the authorities of other states.

Population by the State Census of 1845.

The total population of the state, by the census of 1845, is 2,604,495; in 1840 it was 2,428,921; in 1835, 2,174,517; showing an increase for the last 5 years of 175,574, and for the last ten years of 429,978.

The comparative population since 1790 has been as follows:

			Total.	Slaves.	Free persons of color.
Census,	U. S.,	1790,	340,120	21,324	4,654
do.	do.	1800,	586,756	20,343	10,374
do.	do.	1810,	959,049	15,017	25,333
do.	do.	1820,	1,372,812	10,088	29,980
do.	State,	1825,	1,616,458		*39,701
do.	U. S.,	1830,	1,918,608	75	44,870
do.	State,	1835,	2,174,517		43,770
do.	U. S.,	1840,	2,428,921	4	50,027
do.	State,	1845,	2,604,495		44,346

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* This is the whole number of persons of color in 1825; in 1827 the slaves became free by an act of the Legislature passed in 1817.

Decennial Increase of the Population.

From	1790 to 1800,	72.5	per cent.
"	1800 to 1810,	63.4	do.
"	1810 to 1820,	43.1	do.
"	1820 to 1830,	39.7	do.
"	1830 to 1840,	26.6	do.
"	1835 to 1845,	19.7	do.

Population of Cities and Villages.

The number of inhabitants comprised in the 9 cities of the state is as follows, compared with 1840 and 1835:

Cities.	State Census, 1845.	U. S. Census, 1840.	State Census, 1835.
1. New-York,	371,223	312,710	270,089
2. Brooklyn,	59,553	36,233	24,529
3. Albany,	41,139	33,721	28,109
4. Buffalo,	29,773	18,213	15,661
5. Rochester,	25,265	20,191	14,404
6. Troy,	21,709	19,334	16,959
7. Utica,	12,190	12,782	10,183
8. Schenectady,	6,555	6,784	6,272
9. Hudson,	5,657	5,672	5,331
Total,	573,069	465,640	391,537

Increase of the cities of the state in 5 years,	from 1835 to 1840,	74,103, or 19 p. ct.
do. do. in 5 years,	from 1840 to 1845,	107,429, or 23 p. ct.
do. do. in 10 years,	from 1835 to 1845,	181,532, or 46 p. ct.

The total of the present estimated population of the incorporated villages in the state, over 150 in number, is 230,000, and of the unincorporated villages, about 1,000 in number, 300,000. We thus have the proportion of the population located in the cities and villages, or compact settlements, as follows:

Population of cities in 1845, as above,	573,069
Estimated population of incorporated villages,	230,000
do. do. of unincorporated villages,	300,000
Total population of cities and villages,	1,103,069

It thus appears that about two-fifths of the population of the state reside in the cities and villages; while three-fifths, or about a million and a half of the population, are scattered in the agricultural districts, and are chiefly engaged in farming pursuits, or preparing for market the products of the mines and the forest.

Comparative view of the Population in the several Counties, by the State Census, taken in 1835 *and* 1845.

Long Island Counties.	1845.	1835.
Suffolk	34,579	28,274
Queens	31,849	25,130
Kings	78,691	32,579
	145,119	85,983
Staten Island.		
Richmond	13,673	7,691
New-York Island.		
New-York city and co.	371,223	270,089
North River Counties.		
Westchester	47,578	38,790
Rockland	13,741	9,696
Orange	52,227	45,096
Putnam	13,258	11,551
Dutchess	55,124	50,704
Ulster	48,907	39,060
Sullivan	18,727	13,755
Greene	31,957	30,173
Columbia	41,976	40,746
Albany	77,268	59,762
Rensselaer	62,338	56,515
Saratoga	41,477	38,012
Washington	40,554	39,326
Total	545,132	472,186

Northern and East-Central Counties.	1845.	1835.
Clinton	31,278	20,792
Franklin	18,692	12,501
St. Lawrence	62,354	42,047
Essex	25,102	20,699
Warren	14,908	12,034
Hamilton	1,882	1,654
Fulton	18,579	21,265
Montgomery	29,643	25,108
Herkimer	37,424	36,201
Schenectady	16,630	16,230
Schoharie	32,488	28,508
Otsego	50,509	50,428
Delaware	36,990	34,192
Total	376,479	321,609
N. River counties	545,132	472,186
New-York city	371,223	270,089
Staten Island	13,673	7,691
Long Island	145,119	85,983
Total population east of Oneida county	1,451,626	1,157,558

The above statement shows that the population of the state east of Oneida county, (except a few towns included in St. Lawrence county, which lie northwest of Utica,) is 1,451,626; while the population of the counties lying west of the eastern boundary of Oneida county in 1845, was 1,152,869. For convenience we will call these two divisions of the state, *eastern* and *western*; and their relative increase for the last ten years is thus shown:

	1845.	1835.	Increase.
Eastern Section,	1,451,626	1,157,558	294,068
Western Section,	1,152,869	1,016,959	135,910
Total State,	2,604,495	2,174,517	429,978

Increase in the eastern section of the state in ten years, 25 per cent.; in the western section, only 13½ per cent. This is a remarkable result, so different from that of former periods within this century; but accounted for, principally, by the great increase in New-York city, Long Island, and the towns on the Hudson river. The northern counties also show a large increase.

Western Counties.

	1845.	1835.		1845.	1835.
Allegany	40.084	35,214	Niagara	34,550	26,490
Broome	25.808	20,190	Oneida	84,776	77,518
Cattaraugus	30,169	24.986	Onondaga	70.175	60.908
Cayuga	49,663	49.202	Ontario	42.592	40,870
Chautauque	46,548	44,869	Orleans	25,845	22,893
Chemung	23,689	17,465	Oswego	48.441	38,245
Chenango	39,900	40,762	Seneca	24,972	22,627
Cortland	25,081	24.168	Steuben	51,679	41,435
Erie	78,635	57,594	Tioga	22.456	16,534
Genesee	28,845	29,145	Tompkins	38,168	38,008
Jefferson	64,999	53,088	Wayne	42,515	37,788
Lewis	20,218	16,093	Wyoming	27.205	29,443
Livingston	33,193	31,092	Yates	20,777	19,796
Madison	40,987	41,741			
Monroe	70,899	58,085	Total	1,152,869	1,016,959

The increase of population in the western agricultural sections of this state, has been checked by the extensive emigration which has been going on from those sections to the western states and territories; particularly those bordering on the lakes. Notwithstanding the great natural advantages of this state for manufacturing, the progress of that branch of national industry has been slow within our borders, compared with what has been done in the New-England states and in Pennsylvania. Hence, but few of the counties of New-York have derived any very considerable increase of population from the progress and growth of manufactures, either from the accession of population by emigrants from other states and countries, to be employed in manufactories, or by the check to emigration of the agricultural population from the state, which is always effected by furnishing, through the manufacturing interest, a home market to the farmer for articles not suited for export to foreign countries.

Statistics of the Population of the State by the Census of 1845.

Number of males 1,311,362, females 1,293,153: total	2,604,495
do. males subject to militia duty	228,292
do. persons qualified to vote	539,379
do. aliens not naturalized	153,717
do. paupers	8,909
Persons of color not taxed 42,320, taxed 2,025: total	44,346
do. color who are legal voters (freeholders)	1,001
Number of married females under 45 years of age	230,216
do. unmarried females between 16 and 45	161,334
do. do. do. under 16	490,709
do. marriages the year preceding	27,783
do. births the year preceding, males	46,817
do. do. do. do. females	42,938
do. deaths the year preceding, males	18,722
do. do. do. do. females	17,562

Number of inhabitants born in the state of New-York	1,894,278
do. do. born in the New-England states	228,881
do. do. born in the other U. States	83,641
Total native Americans	2,206,800

Number of inhabitants born in Mexico and S. America,	977	
do. born in Great Britain or its possessions	277,890	
do. born in France	10,619	
do. born in Germany	49,558	
do. born in other parts of Europe	8,222	
Total foreigners		347,266

Number of children between 5 and 16 years of age	664,520
do. do. attending common schools	493,539
do. do. do. private or select unincorporated schools	58,320
Number of children attending academies or incorporated seminaries	13,679
Number of children attending universities or colleges	1,301
Number of deaf and dumb	1,082
(Of these, 127 are males under 12, and 109 are females under 12 years; 290 are males and 283 are females over 12 and under 25 years. 487 are of indigent parents, and 329 are of parents able to support and educate them.)	
Number of blind of all ages	877
do. idiots	1,620
do. lunatics	2,168
do. Indians: males 743, females 683—total	1,426

STATISTICS OF CHURCHES.

	Number of Churches.	Cost of Churches.	Cost of other Improvements.	Cost of Real Estate.
Baptists,	782	$1,903,782	$158,354	$378,923
Episcopalians,	268	1,830,080	187,302	534,649
Presbyterians,	669	2,421,790	250,065	519,922
Congregationalists,	271	648,332	49,826	115,685
Dutch Reformed,	260	1,292,688	119,463	366,798
Methodists,	1,123	1,905,442	157,802	419,706
Roman Catholics,	104	655,140	75,233	248,896
Universalists,	112	288,608	17,126	49,044
Unitarians,	65	166,069	14,904	59,054
Quakers,	153	156,383	19,214	84,317
Jews,	15	89,450	9,000	18,085
Total,	3,822	$11,357,764	$1,058,289	$2,795,079

Number of clergymen of all denominations in the state,	4,399
Total amount of salaries or compensation payable to clergymen of all denominations, for the year, including perquisites and use of real estate by them,	$1,531,287
Average to each clergyman,	$348,$\frac{9}{100}$

The three Learned Professions.

The numbers of persons in the three learned professions of divinity, law, and medicine, are as follows:

Number of Clergymen,	4,399
" of Attorneys,	3,549
" of Physicians and Surgeons,	4,610
Total in the three professions,	12,558

The annual incomes of the clergy, it will be observed, are given in the census, averaging the very small amount of \$348$\frac{9}{100}$ to each clergyman. We have long been satisfied that the members of this profession were worse paid than those of either of the other learned professions, and gave an opinion some years since (in Williams's New-York Annual Register for 1834,) that the salaries of the clergy in this state would not average over \$500 per annum. This opinion was quoted by Hon. W. G. Ouseley, of the British Legation, in his work on the Statistics of the United States, and others. With regard to the probable annual incomes of gentlemen of the bar, and practitioners in medicine, it must of course be matter of conjecture. The members of those two professions, however, are now so numerous, that we consider an estimate of six hundred dollars for the annual average of earnings or fees received by each attorney and physician or surgeon in the state as sufficiently large. Taking this estimate as a basis, and the returns of the census as to the clergy, and we have the following amounts paid annually by the people to the members of the three professions for their services, viz:

Annual Incomes of 4,399 Clergymen,	\$1,531,287
" " of 3,549 Attorneys,	2,129,400
" " of 4,610 Physicians and Surgeons,	2,766,000
Total,	\$6,426,687

This is, of course, exclusive of the cost of courts, judges, &c., in the expenses of law; and of medical professors, medicines, &c., in the expenses of medicine.

Other Occupations.

Some of the other occupations of the people, (males we presume,) are thus given in the census:

Number of farmers and agriculturalists	253,292
do. mechanics	125,001
do. manufacturers	13,088
do. merchants	20,758
do. inns and taverns	5,813
do. groceries	5,860
do. wholesale stores	2,540
do. retail stores	12,257

Statistics of Education.

		Cost of Buildings.	Cost of other Improvements.	Cost of Real Estate.
Number of colleges	10	$505,000	$119,350	$781,500
do. academies	163	743,104	110,040	137,814
do. female seminaries	55	205,601	14,753	64,840
Other incorporated institutions of learning,	22	420,800	22,555	191,720
Normal schools	2	2,000	2,000	10,000
Private and select schools	1,569	312,137	43,206	191,759
Common schools	10,707	2,997,155	135,362	606,605
Total	12,528	$5,185,797	$447,266	$1,984,238

Number of children attending private and select schools.... 44,783
do. pupils on teachers' list, in common schools......463,069
Average attendance of common schools....................291,595

AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL STATISTICS.

To the quantities returned in the census, we add an estimate of the value of each item, where no value is given in the census.

Farms and Gardens.

Number of acres of improved land 11,757,276, at $20—$235,145,520

Live Stock.

Number of horses		505,155,	at $60—	30,309,300
No. of neat cattle		2,072,330,	at 12—	24,867,960
under one year old,	334,456			
over one year old,	1,709,479			
No. of cows milked,	999,490			
No. of sheep		6,443,855,	at 1.50—	9,665,782
under one year old,	1,870,728			
over one year old,	4,505,369			
No. of fleeces,	4,607,012			
No. of lbs. of wool,	13,864,828			
No. of hogs		1,584,344,	at 3.00—	4,753,032
Value of poultry, (by U. S. Census of 1840)				1,153,413

Total value of investments in agriculture, exclusive of improvements and unimproved lands, and including horses used in cities and villages $305,895,007

The area of the state, exclusive of the waters of the great lakes, is estimated at 45,658 square miles, or 29,220,936 acres. It thus appears that, making a large allowance for lands covered with water, mountains, swamps and other waste lands, besides the sites occupied by cities and villages, less than one-half of the surface of the soil of the state is at present under cultivation.

The number of acres of improved land in the state, by the census of 1825, was.. 7,160,967
By the census of 1835, was.......................... 9,655,426
do. 1845, was..........................11,757,276

Showing an increase in the land brought under cultivation, in ten years, from 1825 to 1835, of.............. 2,494,459
In ten years, from 1835 to 1845, of 2,101,850
And in twenty years, from 1825 to 1845, of............. 4,596,309

The comparison of the live stock for the three periods, is as follows:

	1845.	1835.	1825.
Horses	505,155	524,895	349,628
Neat cattle	2,072,330	1,885,771	1,513,421
Sheep	6,443,855	4,261,765	3,496,539
Hogs	1,584,344	1,554,358	1,467,573

Agricultural Products, in 1844.

	No. of Acres under Cultivation.	Bushels raised.	Average Price.	Estimated Aggregate Value.
Wheat	1,013,665	13,391,770	$1.00	$13,391,770
Barley	192,503	3,108,704	60	1,864,222
Rye	317,099	2,966,322	60	1,779,793
Indian corn	595,134	14,722,114	50	7,361,057
Oats	1,026,915	26,323,051	30	7,896,915
Buckwheat	255,495	3,634,679	50	1,817,339
Peas	117,379	1,761,503	1.00	1,761,503
Beans	16,231	162,187	1.00	162,187
Potatoes	255,762	23,653,418	30	7,096,025
Turnips	15,322	1,350,332	25	337,583
Flax	46,089	2,897,062 lbs.	8	219,765
Total	3,851,594			$43,688,159

Average value of produce per acre, $11.34.

Of the wheat raised, the 23 counties west of the western boundary of Oneida county produced 10,976,272 bushels, and the counties east of that line, including Oneida, Madison, Lewis, St. Lawrence, &c., produced only 2,415,498 bushels. The six northern counties of Clinton, Franklin, Essex, St. Lawrence, Jefferson and Lewis, produced 1,070,843 bushels. The 10 central counties of Oneida, Otsego, Madison, Chenango, Broome, Herkimer, Montgomery, Fulton, Schoharie and Delaware, produced 879,059 bushels. The 3 counties of Kings, Queens and Suffolk, on Long Island, produced 203,789 bushels; and Staten Island, Richmond county, produced 10,337 bushels. It is thus shown that wheat is raised in considerable quantities in all sections of the state; but it is most profitable in the western counties, where the soil and climate are most congenial to this valuable grain.

A few other agricultural statistics appear in the census, to which we add an estimate of the value as follows:

Wool.—Number of lbs. sheared, 13,864,828, 30cts.	$4,159,448
Butter.—Number of lbs. made the preceding year, 79,501,733, 12½cts.,	9,937,716
Cheese.—Number of lbs. made, 36,744,976, 6cts.,	2,204,700
	$16,301,864

Amount brought forward,........	$16,301,864
Raw Silk.—Number of lbs. manufactured from the silk worm, 1,439, $4, ...	5,756

The following items from the census of 1840 we do not find in the census of 1845:

Hay.—Tons, 3,127,047, $9,.........................	$28,143,423
Maple Sugar.—lbs. 10,048,109, 6cts.,................	602,886
Products of the orchard,..........................	1,701,935
Hops.—lbs., 447,250, 12cts.,.......................	53,670
Add the preceding amount of grain, vegetables, &c.,.................................	43,688,159
Total annual products of agriculture,........	$90,497,693

Manufactures.

	Number of Factories.	Value of Raw Materials.	Value of Manufactures.
Cotton factories..................	118	$1,132,702	$2,877,500
Woollen factories................	345	2,877,804	4,281,257
Iron works	500	4,451,674	8,402,586
Trip hammers.....................	156	284,360	586,328
Distilleries......................	221	3,162,586	4,222,154
Asheries.........................	738	613,516	909,194
Glass factories..................	15	115,200	378,700
Rope factories...................	79	659,413	918,540
Chain cable factories.............	1	2,500	5,000
Oil cloth factories...............	24	167,992	270,260
Dyeing and printing factories.....	18	1,497,038	2,086,986
Clover mills..................	115	107,803	124,567
Paper mills	82	369,966	702,505
Tanneries.......................	1414	4,052,949	6,585,006
Breweries	102	805,797	1,313,273
Grist mills	1984	18,580,372	22,794,474
Saw mills.......................	7406	4,210,713	7,577,174
Oil mills.........................	87	1,362,074	1,695,025
Fulling mills	740	1,125,539	1,660,839
Carding machines................	820	1,416,904	1,678,320
Total....................	14,965	$46,996,902	$69,069,688
Deduct raw materials..			46,996,902

Proceeds of the above manufactures, to be divided between capital and labor..	$22,072,786

Goods made in Families.

	Yards.		
Fulled cloth	1,661,366,	at $1.00—	$1,664,366
Flannel and other woollen cloth not fulled	2,650,116,	at 20—	530,023
Linen, cotton, or other thin cloth..	2,775,657,	at 15—	416,348
Total proceeds of manufactures..................			$24,683,523

The preceding amount does not, however, show the total annual value of manufactured goods, (exclusive of raw materials,) many of the most important articles of mechanics and manufactures being omitted in the census of 1845. The estimated amount of products of manufacturing, based on the census of 1840, as calculated by Professor Tucker of Virginia, was, including lumber, ashes, &c. $52,495,295.

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN THE STATE OF NEW-YORK.

Estimated by Professor Tucker, of Virginia, on the basis of the United States Census of 1840.

		Number.	Value.	
I.	*Agriculture.*			
	Horses and mules	474,543	$23,736,150	
	Neat cattle	1,911,244	21,823,928	
	Sheep	5,118,777	7,678,165	
	Hogs	1,900,065	5,700,195	
			$58,928,438	
	Annual product estimated at 25 per cent.		$14,757,109	
	Poultry, value		1,153,143	
				$15,910,252
	Wheat, bushels	12,286,418	$12,286,418	
	Oats, do.	20,675,847	7,753,192	
	Indian corn, do.	10,972,286	6,857,699	
	Other grain, do.	7,787,276	5,890,457	
	Potatoes do.	30,123,614	7,530,903	
				$40,318,669
	Wool, pounds	9,845,295	3,445,853	
	Products of dairy		10,496,021	
	do. of orchards		1,701,935	
	Hay, tons	3,127,047	28,143,423	
	Other products		8,258,838	
				$52,046,070
	Total agriculture			$108,274,739
II.	*Commerce.*			
	Twenty-five per cent. of capital			24,311,715
III.	*Mines*			7,408,070
IV.	*Manufactures.*			
	Metals and machinery		$8,060,348	
	Woollens		3,537,337	
	Cotton, &c.		5,185,968	
	Hats and caps		2,914,817	
	Leather		6,232,924	
	Paper		882,758	
	Cordage		792,910	
	Musical instruments		472,910	
	Spirits		3,592,144	
	Carriages		2,364,461	
	Furniture		1,971,776	
	Houses		7,265,844	
	Ships		797,317	
	Other manufactures		19,079,759	
			$63,151,273	$139,994,524

	Amount brought forward	$63,151,273	$139,994,524
	Deduct for materials, one-third	21,050,424	
		42,100,849	
	Manufactures by mills, (grain, &c.,) deducting three-fourths	4,238,320	
	Printing, &c	1,115,345	
	Total manufactures		$47,454,514
V.	*The Forest.*		
	Lumber, ashes, &c		5,040,781
VI.	*Fisheries*		1,316,072
	Total annual products of industry		$193,805,891

The proportional amount of this annual product to each individual of the whole population of the state, (2,428,921,) is *seventy-nine dollars.*

The average annual product of industry of the New-England states to each individual of the population, is estimated at	$84
Middle states, (including New-York,)	76
Southern states	52
Southwestern states	61
Northwestern states	41
Average of the whole United States	62

Comparative View of the Occupation of the People of the State of New-York in 1820 *and* 1840.

Employed in	1820.	1840.
Agriculture	247,648	455,954
Manufactures	60,038	173,093
Commerce	9,113	28,468

Internal Improvements.

State canals, cost of 716 miles completed works, in 1845	$21,958,105
Cost of sections not in use	8,159,795
Total	$30,117,900
Amount of tolls in 1845	$2,646,181
The present canal debt is about	$20,000,000

Delaware and Hudson Canal and Railroad, owned by the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company in New-York and Pennsylvania—	$
108 miles of canal cost	$2,406,977
16 do. railroad cost	503,580
Total	$2,910,557

Railroads completed by incorporated companies, 716 miles, cost	$18,823,590

Valuation of Real and Personal Estate for the year 1845.

Assessed value of real estate	$486,490,121
do. do. personal estate	115,988,895
Corrected aggregate valuation	605,640,095
Amount of state and county taxes	3,221,256
do. town taxes	949,271
Total taxation	4,170,527

Banking Capital.

	Capital.
150 banks and banking associations	$42,907,428

Savings Banks.

16 savings banks—amount of deposits for last returns, about	$8,000,000

Miscellaneous.

The state is divided into 59 counties, which are subdivided into about 850 towns, including 9 cities, and these are again divided into about 1150 villages, of which 152 were incorporated previous to 1845. The number of post-offices in 1845 was 1919—in 1835, 1703—increase in ten years, 216.

STATISTICS OF CONNECTICUT.

We have great pleasure in presenting to our readers the following statistics, of Connecticut, taken under a law enacted for that purpose in the past year.

Let those who doubt the advantages to be derived from a multiplicity of pursuits, examine well this catalogue of industry. Let them see what can be done by the hardy sons of freemen who consider labor as it ought to be considered—honorable to man, as carrying out the great design of his Creator. This is also the true republican doctrine, and no state in the whole Union confirms it more fully than the state of Connecticut.

Let any one who may doubt this, take a trip through her smiling borders, and there he will see all the beauties of nature adorned and made to bloom with every freshness and luxuriance by her handmaids, the arts.

Let him pass through her villages, and see her temples devoted to worship—her public buildings, colleges, school-houses, and private dwellings—and if he *can*, then let him point out another spot on the globe where all these proofs of a high state of civilization are more beautifully or more comfortably displayed. Her population, too, everywhere busy; the hum of useful industry adding to the music of her waterfalls. Let any sojourner within the limits of Connecticut examine her bills of mortality, and tell us where a more healthy spot is to be found on earth. Let her criminal records be examined, and she will be found among the lowest in the list of delinquents.

The population by this census is 310,015, while the whole product is $48,874,804. So much for the experiment of self-government under that protection which is justly given to it by the tariff of 1842.

Can any man contemplate this prosperous state of things, and then justify an intermeddling on the part of the general government, to destroy a moral and physical happiness such as it pourtrays? How sad will be the reverse produced by the operation of the bill which lately passed the House of Representatives of the United States!

We fairly shudder to think that party drill, may, by possibility, force it through the Senate. While we hope better things from the wisdom which that august body has recently shown upon a late occasion, involving the great question of peace or war.

It is most probable that the fate of the new tariff bill, which will prove more destructive to the industry of the whole Union, than does the "poisonous Upas" to the annihilation of human life, will not be sealed before this number of our work will be given to the public. We shall reserve space till the last moment, in the hopes and with the prayer, that we may be enabled, should its fate be decided, to give to our readers the cheering intelligence that the Senate has interposed its powerful arm to save us from the impending degradation of reducing the value of the labor of the freemen of the United States to that of the serfs of European despotism. The whole question resolves itself ultimately into this, and wo be to those who shall perpetrate such a deed.

ADVERTISEMENT OF THE SECRETARY OF STATE

PRECEDING THE CENSUS

There are in the state of Connecticut one hundred and forty-four towns, with a population, in the year one thousand eight hundred and forty, of three hundred ten thousand and fifteen.

As no means had been recently adopted by the legislature by which the value of the agricultural products, or the amount and value of the manufactures of the state could be ascertained, the last general assembly deemed it a duty to provide some remedial measures for the embarrassment often arising from ignorance of our resources as a state and people.

They therefore passed an act "to obtain statistical information in relation to certain branches of industry," by which it was provided that the assessors of each town should, between the first day of October, 1845, and the first day of the next succeeding April, make return to the secretary of state, of certain facts as they existed in each city or town on said first day of October.

The assessors were to be paid from the state treasury for their services, and their accounts to be audited by a committee of the legislature, and they were subjected to a penalty, for wilful neglect to make return.

The secretary of state was also directed to prepare and print an abstract from the returns of the assessors for the use of the next legislature.

In compliance with those directions the following abstract is submitted to the Hon. General Assembly.

The legislature did not probably reflect upon the amount of labor to be performed in preparing the tabular arrangement directed by the act, nor upon the time in which the same might be accomplished; as it will be perceived by an examination of the statute, that only one month intervenes between the time limited in which to make the returns to the secretary and the session of the assembly, at which the abstract is so to be presented. That is surely too brief a period in which to prepare and print the tables, with that degree of arrangement, or accuracy of computation, which under other circumstances might have been attained. If, therefore, errors (it is believed there are none) should be discovered, the haste with which the tables have necessarily been prepared, will, it is hoped, be deemed a sufficient apology.

All the towns in the state, with a single exception, made returns. In some instances, however, information was wholly refused the assessors, and in others, partial statements only could be obtained; these facts will serve to explain many apparent discrepancies. For example—There are two woollen mills in Danbury, at which, as appears by the returns, 14,480 yards of satinett have been manufactured, and only 3,000 lbs. of wool consumed. The cause of the great disproportion between the quantity of cloth manufactured, and wool consumed, is explained by the fact that the quantity of *cloth manufactured* at both mills has been returned, while that of the *wool consumed* at one only has been reported.

The quantity of articles manufactured or produced has sometimes been returned without any valuation; and, on the other hand, in some cases, the value of articles has been returned without a statement of the quantity.

Some errors have been made by the assessors, but as the directions in regard to the abstract appeared to authorize a compilation merely, but few alterations have been made. And as those errors (wherever they occur) are manifest, it is believed they will not mislead any one.

With the addition of buckwheat, beans, broom-corn, charcoal, shingles, and a few others, the articles included in the tables are those specified in the act. Had time permitted, other important articles manufactured would have had a place assigned them in the tables, but they now go to swell the column of miscellaneous articles, the items of which may be found under the town returns.

As the result would not be greatly varied thereby, fractions have been rejected in the tabular statement.

Secretary's Office.
May, A. D., 1846.

DAN'L. P. TYLER.

Statistics of Connecticut for the year ending October 1, 1845.

Agriculture.	Value of Articles produced in 1845.
Indian corn	$1,183,159
Rye	495,080
Barley	26,835
Oats	571,434
Beans	11,155
Potatoes	1,115,367
Wheat	38,633
Hay	4,212,725
Millet	249
Buckwheat	88,566
Broom corn	4,348
Butter	918,839
Cheese	344,451
Hops	968
Flax	6,669
Fruit	294,526
Esculents, not enumerated	181,387
Tobacco	243,805
Teazles	9,553
Wool	306,290
Beeswax	1,441
Honey	16,043
Total	$10,071,523
Raw silk	2,744
	$10,074,267

Value of Animals.

Horses	$1,249,521
Mules and asses	2,840
Neat cattle	2,808,352
Sheep	315,004
Swine	1,144,756
Total	$5,520,473

MANUFACTURES.	VALUE.	Capital invested.	Hands employ'd
Anchors, chain cables, &c.	391,275	370,230	365
Axes, hatchets, &c.	268.656	366,935	302
Bark	21,800		
Blacking	3.570		9
Bleaching, or coloring	618,000	106,800	302
Blocks and pumps	23,510		28
Boats	202,770		61
Boots and shoes	1,741,920		14,918
Brass articles	1,126,494	680,900	608
Bricks	113,060		310
Britannia ware	145.157	66,600	130
Brooms	14,093		63
Brushes	350	200	1
Buttons	428,762	192.250	637
Butts and hinges	48,500	10,000	21
Calico	175,000		
Candles, sperm and oil	48,508	40.626	
do. tallow and soap	99,147	37,526	65
Cards	12.000	5.000	8
Carpeting	597,028	584.000	946
Chairs and cabinet ware	318.201	163,925	478
Charcoal	225,756		97
Chemical preparations,	89,550	20,945	91
Clocks	771,115	369,600	656
Coaches, wagons, &c.	1,222,091	670.981	1,506
Combs	243,638	176,363	252
Copper	275,000	100,000	40
Cordage	132,566	77,600	105
Cotton gins	880		1
Cotton goods of all kinds	3,023,326	3,312,450	5,362
Cutlery	91,837	67,525	176
Fire arms	155,825	91,600	164
Flour	334,698	317,605	121
Glass	10.800	10,000	29
Hats, caps and muffs	921,806	409,330	1,461
Hollow ware and castings	476,450	382,639	585
Hooks and eyes	111.600	82,900	208
Hosiery and yarn	320,373	161,000	168
Pig iron	272,000	207,000	362
Iron railing and safes	21,000		
Jewelry, including watches, gold and silver ware, &c.	206,770	86,400	175
Latches and door handles	169,500	89,500	155
Lead	75.600	45,500	17
Leather	735.827	532,070	518
Lime	27,273		61
Linen	426		3
Linseed oil	39.120	36,500	23
Locks	76,340	41,700	102
Lumber	378,299		942
Machinery	363,860	196,380	436
Marble, curb stones of	64,276		96
Miscellaneous articles	4,472,300	1,469,499	7,490
Musical instruments	25.250	21,650	37
Paints	67,350	70,000	62
	21,752,103	10,570,729	28,863

MANUFACTURES.	VALUE.	Capital invested.	Hands employ'd
Brought forward	21,752,103	10,570.729	28,863
Paper	1,186,302	684,700	659
Pens of steel	700		5
Pins	170,000	68,000	158
Ploughs	50,435	33,650	72
Powder	15.125	13,000	11
Rolled and slit iron	442,061	234,000	170
Saddles, harness and trunks	547,990	351,760	580
Salt	150	1,500	2
Screws	49,706	19,000	81
Scythes	98,492	69,890	93
Shingles	12.915		5
Shovels, spades, forks and hoes	29,468	24,193	51
Silk, sewing, &c.	173,382	121,001	272
Snuff, tobacco and segars	83,890		104
Steam engines and boilers	16,700	7,000	13
Straw bonnets, hats, &c.	113.780		593
Tacks and brads	44,000	40,500	36
Tin ware	487,810	258,100	414
Tools, mechanics'	154,980		237
Upholstery	2,623	600	4
Vessels built	338,575		465
Whips	3,931		39
Wooden ware	59,304		167
Wood, fire	569,284		1,438
Woollen goods of all kinds	3,280,575	1.786,640	2,149
Worsted goods	82.000	14,000	42
Total	$29,814,381	$15,399,263	48,613

MISCELLANEOUS.

	Value.	Capital.	Hands.
Fishery, shad, mackerel and cod	$461,773	$178,045	1,707
Fishery, whale	1,304,318	—	3,608
Oil consumed in manufactures	1,324.469	—	—
Building stone	330,023	—	817
Iron ore	44,500	—	62
Total	$3,465,083		6,194

RECAPITULATION.

	Value.	Capital.	Hands.
Agriculture	$10,074.267	Not given.	Not enumerated.
Animals	5,520,473	do.	do.
Manufactures	29.814.381	$15,399,263	48,613
Miscellaneous	3,465,083	—	—
Capital in the miscellaneous only given in shad, mackerel and cod fishery	—	178,045	6,194
	$48,874,304	$15,577,308	54,807

MEMORIAL OF THE CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE OF ELBERFELD AND BARMEN.

The following are the extracts from a memorial addressed by the Royal Chambers of Commerce at Elberfeld and Barmen, to the Finance Minister, relative to the state of trade and industry of Germany during the year 1840. It should have immediately followed the account of the German Fairs, but was omitted in that place by a misunderstanding of the printer. As it is a separate matter, its insertion in this place remedies the omission to place it where the editor designed it should appear. This memorial is alluded to on the first page of this number, and the attention of the reader is requested to note its important contents.

Extracts from a Memorial, addressed by the Royal Chambers of Commerce at Elberfeld and Barmen, to the Finance Minister, relative to the state of Trade and Industry during the year 1840.

(TRANSLATION.)

"Amongst the grievances alleged by the memorialists, are the following:

"That the decreased exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to the United States, have been the means of glutting the Prussian market with the like goods; and that the effect of such influx of British cotton wares has been more sensibly felt, owing to the existence of the present system of the "Customs Union" in Germany.

"At most of the leading factories, silk, and mixed goods of silk, &c., are now manufactured; all which were before sought in the English market. That in the petitioners' immediate neighborhood upwards of 1,000 persons are employed in these manufactures: that the silk dyeing and printing establishments have fully answered all the expectations originally formed in their favor. The petitioners, however, have to lament, that such promising advancement in manufacturing industry, has been rendered almost abortive from the depressed condition of the operatives.

"For *political* and other reasons it becomes essentially requisite that the states of the *Zoll-Verein* should be in a position to manufacture for, and supply themselves; and in this view it is doubly necessary to secure their trade, &c., from *foreign invasion.*

"That the export trade between the states of Germany and foreign countries, especially with the United States, has greatly decreased. And that between 1839 and 1840 such diminution has amounted to more than 57,000,000 dollars.

"In regard to *half-silk goods*, the above Chambers of Commerce have for some time past in their memorials to government sought an increased rate of duty on articles of this description, without success; they unite at present in the following request:

"That every assistance should be provided in the states of the union for encouraging and prosecuting designs and patterns in respect to the silk manufacture, and that all descriptions of foreign improvements and designs may be procured with the utmost facility; and also, that the duty upon *mixed silk wares* may be equal to that upon goods wholly of silk manufacture."

"PRINTED CALICOES.—This branch of trade, which was at first very active and promising, has experienced a considerable depression, and the petitioners complain that such depression may be attributed to an unfortunate competition with foreign calicoes, owing to the duty imposed by the tariff of the *Zoll-Verein* being much *too* LOW upon the manufactures of *England* and Switzerland.

"As regards *foreign woollen manufactures*, again they urge that so long as the rate of duty upon such fabrics remains at its present *moderate rate* in their tariff, both France and England will not cease to inundate them with their manufactures. They contend that England can produce at a cheaper and better rate than themselves, and that she possesses other most peculiar and commanding advantages, in comparison to which they have nothing to offer. However, they admit, that as regards both the method of dyeing in the piece, or the yarns, such progress has been made in Germany of late, that in this respect they have little to fear from *foreign* competition.

"An increased protection, of from 3 to 6 rix-dollars per centner, is called for upon woollen yarns, in consideration of the present duty on them not being equal to that levied (50 r. d.) on woollen manufactures generally.

"RIBBON MANUFACTURE.—The memorialists deplore the falling off in this branch of trade; there having been a considerable business carried on as regarded the export of home made ribbons, &c. Now only the commonest sorts can be profitably exported. This they contend is owing to the heavy rates of duty imposed in foreign countries, especially in France, upon their manufactures.

"It is also stated that the continued *exportation of machinery* from the memorialists' vicinity, is attended with great risk and danger to their industry.

"In regard to the linen manufacture, especially in respect to the production of yarns dyed and colored, they contend that without increased protection this branch of industry will be almost destroyed."

The memorialists conclude by a general request in the following terms:

> "That full security may be afforded to native industry by most efficient protective duties being levied generally upon foreign manufactures."

"It is not probable that the Prussian government will further increase the duty on woven goods: the duty being already enormous. The complaints of the memorialists are, like those of all others, seeking protection by imposing high duties on similar foreign goods to their own, proofs that no manufacture can be in a sound condition, unless it can be maintained on the principles of free competition in the markets of the world."—*Remark of the English Editor.*

ROCK SALT.

We publish with great pleasure the annexed communication on the subject of the importation of rock salt, which it appears is extensively used in the bleaching of cottons, and that by certain processes in its preparation for the bleachery, it yields other substances used in other manufactures.

But we shall permit the author of the communication to speak for himself; and not doubting, from his respectability, that what he says is true, we think rock salt should be admitted free of duty, as it would aid in the home consumption of manganese, a mineral abounding in parts of the United States, and since rock salt being thus imported, would stimulate home industry without injury to any one.

ROCK SALT.

Within the past ten years the importance of the manufactures which are based on the use of this article, has attracted some attention, and should be well known to our legislators.

By decomposing this substance through the aid of a strong acid, in contact with the ordinary ore of manganese, chlorine gas, a substance used in bleaching cotton goods, is obtained; there remains a salt, which, by other economical operations, is decomposed, and the product is soda, or soda ash, an alkali which is one of the constituents of all hard soaps, of window glass, and an indispensable agent in bleaching and other arts. The discovery of the processes for thus decomposing salt originated in France, but the applications have been greatly extended, and the manufacture is most advantageously conducted in England. There are six substances, viz., salt, sulphur, saltpetre, manganese, coal and limestone, used in the operations. The products are bleaching powder, carbonate of soda and soda-ash.

Possessing mines of rock salt and coal in the greatest abundance, England has monopolised the business of supplying the markets of the world with soda products; and so enormous is the production, that several branches of industry have been affected, and established courses of trade have been changed. In the manufacture of soap the alkali was formerly obtained from barilla and kelp, two crude sodas resulting from the incineration of marine plants, which are either the spontaneous growth of marshes, or are cultivated in different countries with great ease. Thus in Sicily, in the island of Teneriffe, in France and Scotland, a large population once subsisted by the avails of labor applied to the production of a crude alkali. Vessels in part laden with fruit and bulky goods were dependant on a supply of crude soda or barilla, for the heavier part of the cargo. This trade scarcely exists at present. The soap-maker extracted from barilla the alkali suited to his use, while the agriculturist received in his waste the materials for fertilising sterile soils.

The first return from the first improvements in our country, is in the form of potash, or pearlash; the export trade was a large one, and a demand at all times existed, which supported a remunerating price constantly. Many of the first comforts of our border settlements can be referred directly to the money received for ashes obtained by the combustion of the forests. Now our imports of soda products far exceeds in amount our exports of pot and pearl ashes.

By the older processes for bleaching cottons, potash was used to produce alkaline action. The substitution of the products from salt has reduced the time and expense of bleaching to about one-tenth what it was formerly. Indeed, without the arts we have described, all the potash at present produced would be insufficient in quantity for bleaching cotton goods alone. The extension of the cotton manufacture could not have reached its present limit, and thousands who now enjoy the comfort and pleasure of wearing bleached and printed cottons would have been debarred the enjoyment. In the arts indispensable to civilization, soap making and window glass manufacture, great changes have been produced. The alkali, when obtained from a ton of barilla, without any charge for extracting it, cost the consumer thirty-five dollars. Soda-ash, of equal value, at the same place, now costs twenty-six dollars. In the large consumption for window and bottle glass, the relative cost of the alkalis, potash and soda, is to be compared. Assuming one hundred dollars as the average price of pot and pearlash for the past fifteen years,—a price below what it would be now were the consumption great,—we find that the cost of soda-ash, to produce the same effect, is fifty-five dollars and thirty cents. In these arts the lower cost of the soda is not the only advantage attending its use. Its strength is accurately known, and the manufacturing operations are not only shortened, but are rendered more certain in their results. This cheap production of alkali is now affecting the trade of South America. Tallow and other substances, materials for soap, are sent to England almost exclusively.

In considering the importance of the branches of industry growing out of the consumption of salt, we have had in view the question,—what are the advantages which England possesses over our own country, in resources, for rendering permanent so large a manufacture? The reply is salt, in a solid native state, in great abundance. Of the six substances enumerated as necessary to the manufactures which are so interwoven with others of prime necessity and comfort, one only gives England precedence in the manufacture. A large part of the manganese consumed there is mined in Vermont and other states, where exist exhaustless beds of it. The other substances bear nearly the same prices in our markets as in those of England.

Ever wakeful to the importance of fostering the industry of the country, the English government allows a bounty on all manufactured salt exported. The crude, or native salt, bears therefore a higher relative price to that of the manufactured salt than it would otherwise; for its general use, in a crude state, is not permitted by law. Rock salt, in its native state, brought to this country, is charged with a duty of 20 per cent., while the products manufactured from it are admitted free from duty. As the freight of soda-ash costs nearly the same per ton as would the rock salt from which it is made, the duty on the raw material prevents the domestic manufacturer from competing with the foreigner in establishing this manufacture here. It is not possible for the native salt to take the place of manufactured salt in its general uses; its introduction, duty free, would not injure any existing interest, but be an essential aid to the development of the chemical arts in our country. In any discussion of this question we should, however, look higher and further than to any direct advantage to those immediately interested. There is a close connection between this subject and low prices for comfortable and clean clothing as affecting the general welfare. And, finally, while a duty is charged on native salt, and the articles produced from it are admitted free of duty, we acknowledge our dependance on foreign industry and skill, and pay our homage to the excellence of foreign legislation. A. A. H.

FACTS CONNECTED WITH COAL AND IRON WORTH PRESERVING.

No subject is in reality more pregnant with interest to every citizen of the United States, than the locality, quantity, quality, production, consumption and value of coal and iron. Upon these two great *essentials*, hang many of the arts, comforts and luxuries of civilized life. Not a hammer can be lifted, nor a shuttle thrown, without a resort to one or both of these elements of improvement and wealth. Any facts, therefore, tending to develope accurate information on so important a subject, cannot be looked upon with indifference.

Less than one hundred years ago, the amount of coal used in Great Britain was comparatively small. Now, 30,000,000 of tons are consumed annually, and more than three-fifths of it in the manufacture of iron. In 1740 there were but 59 furnaces in all England, and in *that* year less than 18,000 tons of iron manufactured in the kingdom! In 1752 coal (or coke) was first used in melting iron in England, and since that period over 2,000,000 of tons have been imported into the United States, at a cost of about $100,000,000! Yet there is at this moment in one of the states of this Union, more good coal and iron ore, within reach of the hand of man, than in all the kingdom of Great Britain.

The great body of the bituminous coal in the United States lies west of the Alleghany mountains, and with the exceptions of Cumberland and Blossburg, no openings of any extent have been made east of the mountains. The quantity mined at these places has as yet been comparatively trifling. The finest quality of bituminous coal yet discovered in the United States, is found in great abundance in the vicinity of Phillipsburg, Centre county, Pa.; but at present the mineral riches of that region are "land-locked," for the want of some communication with the Pennsylvania canal. A large amount of bituminous coal is also consumed at Pittsburg and its vicinity, the whole valley of the Ohio and Mississippi being rich in this valuable material. No anthracite coal is found west of the Alleghany mountains, nor indeed, in any part of the United States, except in the southeastern portion of Pennsylvania.

The first discovery of anthracite coal was made by John Musser, 72 years ago, on the top of Sharp mountain, a few miles east of the Susquehanna river, in Dauphin county, near the lands of Judge Clark. Mr. Musser is believed to be still living in Lancaster county, but the locality from whence he procured that coal, is now known to be merely an "out-crop" of a small compressed vein, and unfit for working. The next point where this mineral was brought to light, was at the Mauch-Chunk mines, near the Lehigh river, Northampton county. Messrs. White & Hazzard, of Philadelphia, were the pioneers in opening that coal region; and a history of the labors and difficulties encountered by these bold and enterprising men, in their meritorious efforts to make a pathway for the "black-diamond," would fill a volume. But they triumphed over all obstacles, and are still living to see their native city growing rich from their early efforts. The *first* load of anthracite coal, however, ever seen in Philadelphia, was taken there by Mr. Potts, from what is now known as the Pottsville coal region. But this specimen met with little favor, and its sale, as FUEL, well-nigh brought the seller into difficulty, as he was pronounced to be an impostor, and the article nothing but "*black stone.*"

This took place less than forty years ago, and now nearly 2,000,000 of tons of this "black stone" are taken from the mines yearly. But let it not be supposed that we have any thing more than *commenced* the use of coal in this country, for in 1820 there was only 365 tons mined and sent to market, and the quantity has been yearly increasing, until in 1845 it reached 2,021,674 tons; yet the aggregate of all those 25 years was but 12,224,080 tons, but a little over one-third the quantity mined in England in a single year! the city of London, alone, consuming about 3,000,000 tons per annum.

REPORT OF CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

The following statistics, showing the advantages to the whole Union, of the protection afforded to sugar-planters, by the tariff of 1842, are extracted from a report of the New-Orleans Chamber of Commerce, in answer to Mr. Walker's queries, submitted to that body.

We have before (page 1004, vol. II.) referred to this report, and regretted then, as we do now, that it neither was, nor is in our power to publish it entire.

From some unaccountable reason, known only to Mr. Walker, this report did not find its way to Congress, among the documents accompanying his report. Perhaps our readers may discover the reason, as we think we do, in the clear and conclusive manner in which the Chamber show the great and intimate connection there is between the sugar-planter, the mechanic, the miner, the manufacturer, and the merchant; and how important protection to this great *southern interest* is, to the industry of the whole Union.

That such a body, representing the *merchants* of such an important port as is that of New-Orleans, should entertain opinions so completely at variance with the Secretary of the Treasury, was a very important fact, and one which should have been contained in his report—more particularly as those opinions were in answer to queries submitted by himself.

But whatever may have been his reasons for the omission, we feel it our duty to place them on record, and ask the particular attention to them, of all who desire to see the intimate relation that exists, between all the great industrial pursuits of the Union, and how one sustains the other.

Extract from the unanimous report of the Chamber of Commerce of New-Orleans, in answer to Mr. Walker's queries.

"The advantages of the present duties are more directly apparent as regards sugar, and these advantages are participated in, to a very great extent, by the citizens of every section of our country.

"It has been the aim of many to hold up the sugar-planters of Louisiana in an odious point of view to the people of the United States. They have been represented as a set of bloated monopolists and plunderers, not only small in number, but their interest only of a local nature, and of no importance in a national point of view. Nothing can be further from the facts than assertions of this kind; for the culture of the cane is not only of high national importance, but the advantages derived from it, so far from being of a local nature, are more generally diffused among the citizens of almost every state in the Union, than by any other prominent interest of the country.

"There is probably no civilized community in the world more dependent on others, for the luxuries, comforts, and necessaries of life, than Louisiana is on her sister states. She produces and makes little or nothing for her own wants; and no portion of her population is thus dependent, to a greater extent, than her sugar-planters.

"Without, at present, noticing the great number of new sugar-plantations, we will only take into view the old ones, as they existed last year, of which there were 762 in this state—of these, 408 were worked by steam, and 354 by horse-power.

"The cost of an engine and sugar-mill will average five to $6,000. At the former rate, there is already invested, for the 408 estates, upwards $2,000,000. The mills on the 354 estates, at $2,500 each, will be $885,000 more, making nearly $3,000,000 paid by the planters for their present machinery; and this is a low estimate, as there are many sugar-plantations that have expended 20 to $40,000 for machinery.

"These engines, boilers, mills, &c., require renewing at least every ten years, so that there is an annual expenditure of $300,000 to keep up the present number, which, with $100.000 for new engines, annually required to substitute in the horse-mills, and 80 to $100,000 for repairs and replacing broken machinery, would form an annual expenditure of nearly $500,000, in addition to the first cost, paid to the iron founderies and engine makers of Tennessee, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New-York. Upwards of 70 new engines and sugar-mills are at this moment under contract in Cincinnati alone, for this state, and no doubt a still larger number at Pittsburg, Philadelphia, and New-York; and the expenditure, by the sugar-planters, for new machinery the ensuing season, will, at a low estimate, be at least $1,000,000.

"There are 5,000 large iron sugar-kettles, costing, on an average, $70 each, amounting to $350,000, requiring to be renewed every five years, being an annual expenditure of $70,000, paid principally to the iron founderies of Tennessee, though Pennsylvania, Ohio, and New-York, also participate.

"All the shoes, hats, caps, blankets, and clothing, for the 50,000 hands employed in the culture, are produced from the northern and western states, which, at the low estimate of $20 each, makes $1,000,000 paid under this head, with probably 3 to $400,000 more for similar supplies to the planters, their overseers, engineers, and mechanics, with all their respective families.

"Nearly, or quite $300,000, is annually paid to northern and western mechanics for molasses casks, and hoops and nails for the sugar hogsheads.

"All the agricultural utensils, such as ploughs, harrows, spades, shovels, axes, cane-knives, hoes, harness, carts, barrows, &c.—all the nails, iron, hardware, and tools of every description, are procured from the northern and western states.

"At least $500,000 are annually paid to the west for mules, horses and oxen; of mules alone, 4,000 to 5,000 are annually required, at an average cost of at least $90 each—a still larger sum is yearly paid to the same quarter for pork, bacon, and corn, exclusive of what is raised in the state. With the exception of bricks, and part of the lumber, all the materials for constructing the needful buildings, such as boiling, draining, and mill-houses, the dwellings of the planter, his overseer, mechanics, and negroes, are brought from other states, including slate, tiles, lime, oil, paint, glass, nails, and hardware. The sugar-planter consumes large quantities of rice from South Carolina and Georgia, and tobacco from Virginia and Kentucky; and, in short, he and his negroes are clothed, lodged, and fed, and his crop is growed and made by supplies drawn from abroad; nor is there probably a single state in the Union that does not lay him under contribution to a greater or lesser extent. For all these supplies, as well as many others that cannot be recollected or enumerated, the sugar-planter has only his crop to depend upon, the proceeds of which he certainly distributes, with a most liberal hand, among his fellow-citizens in the other states, and in a mode best calculated to promote their interests and general prosperity. Should a change in the policy of the country curtail, or destroy the sugar interest in Louisiana, and transfer it to foreign planters, it should be borne in mind that the latter, draw few or none of their supplies from the United States, whereas the Louisiana planter spends the whole of his income at home, and gives regular and constant employment to thousands of our own industrious mechanics, artisans, and agriculturalists in every section of the Union, all of whom would be severe sufferers by the change.

"It has been urged against the protection afforded to sugar, that it is for the benefit of a small number, not exceeding 800 individuals. This, in the first place, is a mistake, as the 762 old plantations are owned by 1293 distinct and separate families, or heads of families, comprising, probably, 8 to 10,000 individuals. But supposing it were otherwise, would it in any way alter the importance of it in a national point of view? Would it add more to the national wealth, or give employment to a greater number, were there more proprietors to the existing estates?

"It is presumed that none will deny the national importance of the shipping interest, and yet a selection could, no doubt, be made, of 6 or 700 ship-owners, (about one-half the number of sugar-planters) who, probably, own nine-tenths of all the tonnage of the country. Would this fact lessen the importance of that interest? Would its value, as a nursery of seamen, or its general advantages to the country, be in any way diminished, or changed in consequence? We think not.

"Those who use the argument against it, of its comparative small magnitude, we presume, are not aware that the capital already employed in the culture of the cane in Louisiana, is fully equal to the entire capital invested in all the American tonnage employed in the foreign and coasting trade of the country, and will greatly exceed it, so soon as the new plantations, recently opened and opening, are fully under way. Probably no other distinct and separate branch of national industry, agriculture only excepted, employs an equal capital.

"These remarks, as already observed, only take into view the 762 old estates, as they existed last year, and from which the crop of 200,000,000 of pounds was produced. From the low price of cotton, and the general belief that the extended and extending culture of it was rapidly outstripping the consumption, and would thus create additional depression, many of our cotton-planters have turned their attention to sugar, as affording better prospects for the employment of their capital and hands; in consequence, a large number of sugar-plantations have been recently opened, that heretofore have been devoted to cotton; and many more deterred from doing it from the uncertainty attending the tariff policy of the country.

"Mr. P. A. Champomier, who prepared and published the detailed statement of the crop of last season, has been, and still is engaged in obtaining a detailed and correct statement of all the new plantations, with the name of each proprietor and the location. Heretofore, sugar has been cultivated in only 20 parishes of the state, of which Mr. C. has gone through 17. Of the result, the following is a condensed summary, on which full reliance may be placed, the full details having been before the Committee:

Parishes.	*Old Plantations.*	*New do.*	*Total.*	*Owners.*
Point Coupee	5	32	37	42
West Baton Rouge	19	31	50	69
East Baton Rouge	18	17	35	52
Iberville	69	41	110	169
Ascension	48	15	63	98
St. James	67	9	76	185
St. John	55	6	61	143
St. Charles	37	4	41	88
Jefferson	24	4	28	48
Orleans and St. Barnard	23	2	25	42
Plaquemines	36	7	43	70
Assumption	62	72	134	206
Lafourche	49	39	88	159
Terrebonne	42	26	68	87
St. Mary	147	31	178	287
St. Martin	36	31	67	106
Total	737	367	1104	1851

"From this it appears, that in these 17 parishes, there have been opened in the last 12 or 15 months, 367 new sugar-plantations, making, with 737 old ones, 1104, owned by 1851 distinct and separate proprietors, either as families or heads of families. That in the other three sugar parishes of St. Landry, Vermillion, and Lafayette, there were 25 old plantations; and, from estimate, will be 25 to 30 new ones. That in the parishes of Rapides, Avoyelles, Calcasieu, Concordia, and Catahoula, where the cane had not previously been cultivated, arrangements had been commenced for changing more than 200 cotton into sugar estates; but the larger number have been suspended until the action of Congress is ascertained on the tariff—though from the best estimate that can be made, from 60 to 70 have actually been opened, which will make an aggregate of 450 new plantations now progressing, and with the old ones, a total of about 1,200, owned by more than 2,000 principal proprietors or families, who are wholly or principally dependent on them, besides the engineers, overseers, mechanics and their families, making in all probably 25 to 30,000 white persons, and 80 to 90,000 slaves, who are directly connected with, or dependent on, the culture, besides those indirectly interested in furnishing supplies, transporting and selling the crop, &c., &c.

Of the new plantations, but few this year will raise more cane than they will require for replanting, and therefore will add but little to the growing crop; but the larger number will produce sugar the ensuing season, and all of them the year after. Under anything like a favorable season, the sugar crop of the state, for 1846–'7, may be estimated at 275,000 to 300,000 hogsheads, with a large increase on that quantity in 1847–'8.

"The culture also is increasing in Florida, and will, of course, do so to a greater extent in Texas, under the annexation of that country, where there are large bodies of the finest sugar lands, and with a climate superior even to that of Louisiana, for the cultivation. From all these sources of supply, if there is no change in the tariff policy of the country, there is no reason to doubt that the production will, in a very short period, overtake the entire consumption of the United States, and with a probable surplus for exportation, and so soon as this is the case, the duty will be nominal, as it now is on cotton.

"It requires no argument to show the great advantage which this extended culture of the cane will be to the cotton-planter. The force recently diverted from cotton, has probably heretofore produced more than 100,000 bales, and the advantage derived from this diminished production is not confined to Louisiana, but is equally felt through the entire cotton region of the country; and it should be recollected that the whole force and capital now employed on sugar would be capable of producing 3 to 400,000 bales of cotton, to which culture it must return, if driven from that of sugar; and none for a moment can doubt the depressing and ruinous effect which such an event would inevitably produce on the price of cotton."

Can any candid man read this extract from the Report, not of manufacturers, but of *a Chamber of Commerce*, representing planters and mercantile affairs, connected altogether with southern interests, and not be convinced by its facts, to say nothing of its reasonings, that a protective Tariff is beneficial to those interests? If it were otherwise, would this Committee, in answer to queries put to them by Mr. Walker as Secretary of the Treasury, on a subject involving their pecuniary success, have replied as they have here replied? It is preposterous in the extreme to entertain such a supposition for one moment. Their very existence depends upon the trade of that great port "New-Orleans," from whence they write, and where all their experience has been acquired.

We consider this extract an undeniable answer to all the fine spun theories that ever have been invented to distort and hide the overwhelming truth, that successful commerce depends upon the just protection of our home interests, as much in the planting of cotton and sugar, as in the growing of grain, and the manufacture of our own raw materials.

We refer with pride and pleasure to this document, as fully sustaining all we have ever written upon these subjects, and defy the advocates of the "*ignis fatuus*" of the so called "Free Trade," either to controvert the facts or overthrow the arguments we here place on record.

OFFICIAL REPORT OF THE MANAGERS OF THE GREAT NATIONAL FAIR AT WASHINGTON.

Agreeably to our promise made in our last number, we now publish the Managers' Report of the late Fair at Washington, which came into our possession too late for insertion with the Catalogue. This we very much regret; but as it arose from circumstances beyond our control, our readers will of course excuse us from any censure.

A reference to our July number, where the Catalogue is given both officially and in states, will place the whole matter in possession of our readers, and we think they will agree with us in the opinion, that the Fair was highly honorable to the exhibitors, highly creditable to the managers, and a cause of great congratulation to the whole Union.

REPORT.

On the 25th of March, 1846, the following notice appeared in the National Intelligencer, and was extensively circulated by the newspaper press throughout the country:

House of Representatives, March 24, '46.

With a view to furnish correct information in regard to the character, prices, and extent of American manufactures, as well as to correct misrepresentations on that subject, the undersigned respectfully invite the artisans, mechanics, and manufacturers of the United States to send specimens of their various productions, with their prices, to be compared with the *British* manufactures sent from *Manchester*, and now being exhibited in the room of the "Committee on Post Offices and Post Roads," to influence the action of Congress in relation to the proposed modification of the tariff.

Andrew Stewart,
James Thompson,
Richard Brodhead,
Alexander Ramsey,
Moses McClean,
James Black,
J. S. Yost,
James Buffington,
John Strohm,
John H. Ewing,
Jacob Erdman,
Abraham McIlvaine,
John Blanchard,
James Pollock,
C. Darragh.

On a further consideration of the subject, it was thought advisable to adopt an enlarged and systematic plan for a general exhibition of the products of domestic industry, falling properly under the denomination of American manufactures, and the following gentlemen were requested to act as a committee to carry out and conduct such an exhibition, viz.

William W. Seaton	*Washington*,
Thomas P. Jones,	*do.*
John W. Maury,	*do.*
David A. Hall,	*do.*
W. A. Bradley,	*do.*
R. C. Weightman,	*do.*
Thomas Blagden,	*do.*
William Easby,	*Washington*,
John F. Callan,	*do.*
James Lyons,	*Richmond, Virginia*,
J. P. Kennedy,	*Baltimore, Md.*
John Wethered,	*do.*
O. C. Tiffany,	*do.*

The committee immediately gave notice by a circular address, of which the following is a copy, of the object of their appointment, and invited the co-operation of manufacturers therein:

THE NATIONAL FAIR.

CIRCULAR

Of the Committee of Superintendence of the National Exhibition of American Manufactures and products of Mechanical Art,

AT THE CITY OF WASHINGTON, IN MAY, 1846.

Many persons friendly to the permanency of the present protective system, and others, who, without being committed to its support, desire information in reference to its effects, have suggested the importance of procuring an exhibition of American Manufacturing and Mechanical Products, to be made at the seat of government at as early a period, during the present spring, as the opportunities for accomplishing such a project might allow. It is believed that an exhibition, embracing specimens of every kind of handicraft or manufacturing skill employed in the nation, or at least all such specimens as may be conveniently procured for the occasion, together with the prices at which they may be purchased, and the names of those by whom they are fabricated, would embody, in an impressive form, a mass of useful facts which could not fail to be appreciated, as they deserve, by the public authorities upon whom rests the responsibility of sustaining the prosperity of the great interests connected with this subject; and that such facts, collected from the daily transactions of the people, authenticated by the personal examinations of all who choose to inspect them, would furnish incontrovertible arguments in favor of that industry, which so greatly honors as well as enriches the mechanics of America.

A recommendation of a similar exhibition by the National Institute, two years ago, met with a high degree of favor from the public at that period; and the success of such an effort now may, it is hoped, lead to its regular adoption hereafter, as a means of presenting, at suitable intervals, a visible demonstration of the advance of the country in those arts upon which its prosperity so greatly depends.

At a consultation recently held by many members of the present Congress—gentlemen of both political parties—the proposition of inviting such an exhibition as we have referred to was considered and adopted, as an enterprise of eminent utility at this time, and with a confidence that it would find a hearty assent from the friends of national industry throughout the whole Union. To give efficacy to this proposition they have nominated the undersigned as a general committee of superintendence, and have charged them with the duty of presenting the subject to the country at large, of inviting the aid of the friends of national industry to the scheme, and of making such preparations as may be necessary to render the exhibition as full and as effective as the time allowed will permit.

Thus summoned to this labor from a source so amply entitled to the respect and confidence of the nation, and fully concurring in the importance attached to the subject, the undersigned have not hesitated to comply with the wishes of those by whom they have been put in requisition, and promptly to enter upon the duties consigned to them. In the performance of these duties they invoke the earnest co-operation of all who may have any thing to contribute to the proposed exhibition, hoping, that this invitation will be answered in such a manner as shall enable the committee to present such a display of the work of our artizans as shall adequately attest the great skill and perfection to which our country has attained in manufacturing and mechanical art.

The committee propose that the exhibition shall be opened at Washington, on the 20th day of May, 1846, previous to which date ample provision will be made for the reception, security, and suitable disposition of all specimens which may be sent to their care.

They invite the transmission of specimens of every kind of manufacture and handicraft known to the artizans of the United States, and desire that the price, as well as the maker's name, be furnished with each article intended for exhibition. Committees will be appointed for the superintendence and arrangement and preservation of all parcels sent to the exhibition rooms.

The rooms will be ready to receive articles for exhibition from and after the 1st day of May. The exhibition will be kept open not less than two weeks.

Owners of parcels exhibited during the exhibition will, unless directions to the contrary be given, be expected to allow the sale of such parcels at the prices marked, to be delivered at the close of the exhibition.

All goods intended for exhibition can be directed to Mr. David A. Hall, secretary of the committee, who will see to their safe-keeping, and attend to their being repacked after the close of the exhibition.

In case of a sale of them, the money will be duly transmitted.

As there will be many goods undisposed of which the proprietors may not desire to have returned, and prefer to have sold for their benefit, the committee will cause a sale at auction of such articles as the owners may desire to have so disposed of.

Motive power will be furnished at the exhibition rooms for such machinery as may require it.

As the committee can only give this general invitation to the manufacturers and artizans of the country, each one will be pleased to consider it addressed to himself individually.

Editors of papers throughout the country, friendly to the object, are respectfully requested to give this circular a few insertions.

Signed by the Committee.

Washington, D. C., March 28, 1846.

It was early perceived that no room or building could be had in the city of Washington, of sufficient capacity to accommodate the mass of articles to be presented. The committee proceeded, therefore, without any loss of time, to erect on a public lot, under permission from the city authorities, a building, 300 feet in direct length, with wings or side sections of 100 feet each, making an entire building of 500 feet in length, by 60 feet in breadth. It was erected in less than three weeks; and though constructed of rough timber, presented a handsome architectural exterior.

The roof was covered with thick cotton cloth, rendered impervious to water by a coating of paint, and was lined within—both the sides and ceilings, with white and colored muslins, so disposed upon the columns and long ranges of tables, as to add greatly to the beauty of the interior of the building.

The edifice was lighted in the day by numerous sky-lights in the roof, and at night by ranges of gas burners, extending the whole length of the structure, and by lamps furnished with fine oil.

The accommodations for the display of goods consisted of fifty-eight tables, of sixteen feet in length by six feet in width, and of a continuous side table, extending, with slight interruptions, around the entire building, and of two sheds running the whole length, outside of the main building.

A steam engine of about twenty horse power, obligingly furnished by Col. Capron, from the Laurel Factory, Maryland, was erected on the premises, and served to propel the various kinds of machinery presented for exhibition. Nothing at the Fair more gratified the enlightened curiosity of visitors than the busy machinery thus set in motion.

Such were the arrangements which the committee deemed it advisable to make, for the reception and display of the various articles of American manufacture and handicraft art. They were not without apprehensions that these preparations were on too large a scale for the place and occasion; and at times, doubted even whether the magnitude of the building would not render more obvious the insignificance of the display they should be enabled to make. But these doubts were not of long duration.

About the 15th of May, goods began to arrive from various parts of the country; and before the 20th, such an amount had been received, that a contrary apprehension was felt, and the committee began to cast about to see whether their building could be enlarged, or an additional one erected. Their fear then was, that they should not have room enough.

The goods were classified and tastefully arranged on the tables, by Mr. Rowland Ellis, of Boston, a man every way qualified, by experience and natural capacity, for that duty; and at 12 o'clock, on the 21st of May, under the firing of a National Salute, the American Flag was unfurled over the building, and the doors were thrown open.

The public expectation had been greatly excited, and eager multitudes thronged the door for admission.

Cards of invitation were, by direction of the committee, addressed to the entire body of the members of Congress, to the president of the United States, the heads of departments, the resident foreign ministers, the clergy and the editorial corps, either resident or temporarily sojourning in the city of Washington.

The Fair was kept open with undiminished interest, from the 21st of May till the 3d day of June, and was visited, it is believed, by not less than 60,000 persons.

The committee think they may, without arrogance, pronounce this to have been the most magnificent and satisfactory display of the products of American industry, that has yet been made. In the minuter articles of fancy work—articles which contribute greatly to the effect of a public display, other exhibitions may have rivalled this; but in the substantial fabrics that minister to the wants of man in every walk of life, which attest most truly the progress of manufacturing art, and which are most essential to independence of foreign countries, this is believed to stand unsurpassed in this country.

It is with great satisfaction that the committee refer to the various sections of the country which, by their productions, were represented in this national exhibition. It is no longer the East and the North that claim an exclusive knowledge of the mysteries of the spinning-jenny, or of the magic speed of the shuttle. The South also asserts her progress in these arts, and is enabled to point to her power-looms and factories, which weave into cloth the snowy tissue of her lands upon the very fields where it is produced.

It is not the purpose of the committee, in this brief report, or in the catalogue which follows, to particularize and discriminate as to the relative merits of the various articles presented, nor can they, without an arrogance which would not fail of its just rebuke, assume to do so; yet, as the impression prevails so generally, that the North alone is the manufacturing portion of the country, they would respectfully draw attention to those articles of southern fabrication which are enumerated in their list.

If the elder looms of Lowell and Waltham produce finer articles, a Virginian who takes a pride in the progress of art in his own state, may well point to the strong and serviceable fabrics which come from the looms of Richmond and Petersburg, and which will compare favorably, both in price and style of finish, with those of the like class from the North.

Very creditable samples of cotton cloth from the Rockfish Manufacturing Company of North Carolina, at Fayetteville, were exhibited, and a fine style of cotton and woollen goods manufactured by George Schley, Esq., of Georgia, intended for the Indian trade, were produced; these, with the samples of iron from Georgia and Virginia, and especially of cast steel from the latter state, attest that there is in the mines and broad lands of these states, a wealth which, under a wise legislation, the labor of their hands may profitably develope.

The display of cotton goods, both of the fine and more substantial articles of printed calicoes and ginghams, was very ample. The old and long established mills of New-England were fully represented. Fabrics of great beauty, from the steam factories at Lowell, Newbury-port and Providence, were much admired; nor was less attention drawn to the fine shirtings from the New-York Mills, near Utica. Cottons from the new steam mills near Philadelphia, and printed calicoes from the neighborhood of that city, and from a great number of the print works in other parts of the country, exhibited a progress in the art, of dying and fancy coloring, which leaves foreign artisans little to boast in the comparison.

Of the progress that has been made in the manufacture of the great staple of this country, a striking proof was exhibited in the production of a sample [about six yards,] of cotton muslin, of British manufacture, sold in Boston in 1813, at 85 cents a yard, by the bale. The same goods would not sell now for more than six cents a yard. Though the state of war then existing may account for the *very high* price of the goods at that period, yet every American, who values the prosperity of his own country, will rejoice that no such advance in price could take place again, from such a cause, though his country were at war with all the world.

In woollen goods the display was equally satisfactory; in articles of iron and steel; of agricultural implements, fine cutlery and military equipments; of leather in its raw state, in the form of shoes, boots, saddlery, and harness gear, and in fine, in almost all the departments of industry, there was such an exhibition as must have satisfied the most skeptical of the ability of our countrymen to manufacture, to the extent of the entire wants of the country.

Not the least gratifying portion of the exhibition was that which consisted of the operations of spinning by machinery, and of weaving by the power-loom. By the aid of the steam engine several looms were put in motion. But no machine propelled by this power excited so universal admiration as that for setting card teeth, by which, with the simple materials of a coil of wire and a strip of leather, cotton cards were produced with astonishing rapidity. If intelligence could be infused into inert matter, it might readily be believed by those who witnessed the action of this machine, that its inventor was the person to realize the miracle.

The committee submit herewith a list of the articles exhibited, which, though not perfect, is as complete as the circumstances under which it was taken would allow. It was their hope that the ample notices circulated through the newspaper press, would have obviated the necessity of such a catalogue, and it was not till an advanced period of the Fair that it was made. As heretofore intimated, it was not the purpose of the committee to discriminate as to the merits of the goods produced; that delicate task they could not assume. They aim simply to enumerate the articles of which the exhibition was composed, and give the contributors the satisfaction of knowing that their own articles helped to swell the aggregate so much admired.

In the hope that this exhibition has served, in some degree, to enlighten the public mind in regard to one of the great interests of the country, this report and the accompanying list are respectfully submitted by the committee.

Wm. W. Seaton, *Chairman.*

By order,
D. A. Hall, *Secretary.*

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

We select from official documents the following valuable tables relating to the trade and commerce of the United States, one of which gives the consumption of foreign goods from the adoption of the Constitution to the year ending June 30, 1845, inclusive; others show the value of imports and exports from 1821 to 1845, presented in a variety of forms, with a list of the several tariffs passed by Congress, from 1789 to 1842; and the average per cent. of duties on dutiable imports from 1821 to 1842. These several statements are constantly needed for reference by inquirers into the progress of our trade, commerce and manufactures; and their bearing on the national prosperity.

It will be observed that the highest average rate of duties paid on imports, was less than 49 per cent., and that was in 1830, the second year of Gen. Jackson's administration, the duties then collected being under the operation of the tariff passed in Mr. Adams' administration, in 1828. The lowest rate of duties was paid under the compromise act, in 1842, namely, about 24 per cent. on dutiable merchandise, while the average paid under the present tariff is a little over 35 per cent., a shade less than was paid in 1821, under the operation mainly of the tariff of 1816, which was supported on its passage by Mr. Calhoun and other southern statesmen. It will be worth while for the inquirer to compare the prosperity of the country at the different periods when the tariff ranged high or low. It will be found, as we have heretofore stated, that when the duties have been protective in their character, all the great interests of the country have flourished in proportion to those of manufactures.

We perceive by the arrival of the steamer of the 4th from Liverpool, that the change in the corn laws of England has received the sanction of the House of Lords without a division.

This will soon put to the test the opinion we have on more than one occasion given, that this change of measures will produce no benefit to the American farmer. To this opinion we still adhere, and appeal for the result with all and every confidence to the future, not in the slightest degree doubting a full and complete confirmation of our views.

Our farmers will find out, if any there be who are not already convinced of what we have constantly urged, that the grain growing countries of Europe have a constant surplus of the farinaceous productions to a much greater amount than Great Britain will ever need.

The fact that the home market is the very best market for our agriculturists, needs no further enforcement, for they will then have discovered that what England has always meant by "Free Trade," is nothing more nor less, than a determination, if possible, to supersede the manufactures of all other nations, and to secure to herself a monopoly of the immense advantages to be derived from the perfection which the useful arts have now reached. Whether she will succeed or not, will in a great degree depend upon ourselves. If she can dupe us, and procure such legislation as appears to be now in favor at Washington, she may retard our prosperity; but we much mistake the spirit and energy of our people, if they will long submit to a course of policy, which in effect would recolonize us, and bring back all the evils of the confederacy; evils which, in our opinion, were among the principal causes which led to the adoption of the Constitution.

Statement of the aggregate annual amount of imports, and of foreign goods re-exported, from March 4, 1789, *to June* 30, 1845; *showing also the amount retained in the country for consumption.*

YEARS.	Aggregate amount of imports.	Foreign goods re-exported.	Am't retained in the country for consump
1790	$23,000,000	$539,156	$22 460,844
1791	29,200,000	512,041	28,687,959
1792	31,500,000	1,753,098	29,746,902
1793	31,100,000	2,109,572	28,990,428
1794	34,600,000	6,526,233	28,073,767
1795	69,756,268	8,489,472	61,266,796
1796	81,436,164	26,300,000	55,136,164
1797	75,379,406	27,000,000	48,379,406
1798	68,551,700	33,000,000	35,551,700
1799	79,069,148	45,523,000	33,546,148
1800	91,252,768	39,130,877	52,121,891
1801	111,363,511	46,642,721	64,720,790
1802	76,333,333	35,774,971	40,558,362
1803	64,666,666	13,594,072	51,072,594
1804	85,000,000	36,231,597	48,768,403
1805	120,600,000	53,179,019	67,420,981
1806	129,410,000	60,283,236	69,126,764
1807	138,500,000	59,643,558	78,856,442
1808	56,990,000	12,997,414	43,992,586
1809	59,400,000	20,797,531	38,602,469
1810	85,400,000	24,391,295	61,008,705
1811	53,400,000	16,022,790	37,377,210
1812	77,030,000	8,495,127	68,534,873
1813	22,005,000	2,847,845	19,157,155
1814	12,965,000	145,169	12,819,831
1815	113,041,274	6,583,350	106,457,924
1816	147,103,000	17,138,556	129,964,444
1817	99,250,000	19.358,069	79,891,931
1818	121,750,000	19,426,696	102,323,304
1819	87,125,000	19,165,683	67,959,317
1820	74,430,000	18,008,029	56,441,971
1821	62,585,724	21,302,488	41,283,236
1822	83,241,511	22,286,202	60,955,309
1823	77,579,267	27,543,622	50,035,645
1824	80.549,007	25,337,157	55,211,850
1825	96,340,075	32,590,643	63,749,432
1826	84,974,477	24.539,612	60.434,865
1827	79,484,068	23,403,136	56,080,932
1828	88,509,824	21,595,017	66,914,807
1829	74.492,527	16,658,478	57,824,049
1830	70,876,920	14,387,479	56,489,441
1831	103,191,124	20,033,526	83,157,598
1832	101,029,266	24,039,473	76.989,793
1833	108,118,311	19,822,735	88,295,576
1834	126,521,332	23,312,811	103,208,521
1835	149,895,742	20,504,495	129,391,247
1836	189,980,035	21,746,360	168,233,675
1837	140,989,217	21,854,962	119,134,255
1838	113,717,404	12,452,795	101,264,609
1839	162,092,132	17.494,525	144,597,607
1840	107,141,519	18,190.312	88,951,207
1841	127,946,177	15,499,081	112,447,096
1842	100,162,087	11,721,538	88,440,549
1843	64,753,799	6,552,707	58,201,092
1844	108,435,035	11,484,867	96,950,168
1845	117,254,564	15,346.830	101,907,734
	4,970,489,382	1,171,311,028	3,799,178,354

The foregoing table, from 1821 to June 30, 1845, has been compiled from the commercial returns made into this office, pursuant to the law of February 10, 1820. For the years prior to 1821, a former estimate made at the Treasury Department is given.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *Register's Office, November* 10, 1845. R. H. GILLET.

A statement exhibiting the value of foreign merchandise imported, re-exported, and consumed annually, from 1821 *to* 1845, *inclusive.*

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE.

Years.	IMPORTED.			RE-EXPORTED.			CONSUMED AND ON HAND.		
	Free of duty.	Paying Duty.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.
1821...........	$10,082,313	$52,503,411	$62,585,724	$10 764.757	$10,537,731	$21,302,488	See note.	See note.	$41,283,236
1822...........	7,298,708	75,942,833	83,241,541	11,184,896	11,101,306	22,286,202	do	do	60,955,339
1823...........	9,048,288	68,530,979	77,579,267	7,696,749	19,846,873	27,543,622	$1,351,539	48,684,106	50,035,645
1824...........	12,563,773	67,985,234	80,549,007	8,115,082	17,222,075	25,337,157	4,448,691	50,763,159	55,211,850
1825...........	10,947,510	85,392,565	96,340,075	9,885,840	22,704,803	32,590,643	1,061,670	62,687,762	63,749,432
1826...........	12,567,769	72,406,708	84,974,477	5,135,108	19,404,504	24,539,612	7,432,661	53,002,204	60,434,865
1827...........	11,855,104	67,628,964	79,484,068	7,785,150	15,617,986	23,403,136	4,069,954	52,010,978	56,080,932
1828...........	12,379,176	76,130,648	88,509,824	8,427,678	13,167,339	21,595,017	3,951,498	62,963,309	66,914,807
1829...........	11,805.501	62,687,026	74,492,527	5,231,077	11,427,401	16,658,478	6,574,424	51,249,625	57,824,049
1830...........	12,746.245	58,130,675	70,876,920	2,320,317	12,067,162	14,387,479	10,425,928	46,063,513	56,489,441
1831...........	13,456,625	89,734,499	103,191,124	7,599,043	12,434,483	20,033,526	5,857,582	77,300,016	83,157,598
1832...........	14,249,453	86,779,813	101,029,266	5,590,616	18,448,857	24,039,473	8,658,837	68,330,956	76,989,793
1833...........	32,447,950	75,670,361	108,118,311	7,410,766	12,411,969	19,822,735	25,037,184	63,258,392	88,295,576
1834...........	68,393,180	58,128,152	126,521,332	12,433,291	10,879,520	23,312.811	55,959,889	47,248,632	103,208,531
1835...........	77,940,493	71,955,249	149,895,742	12,760,840	7,743,655	20,504,495	65,179,653	64,211,594	129,391,247
1836...........	92,056,481	97,923,554	189,980,035	12,513.493	9,232,867	21,746,360	79,542,988	88,690,687	168,233,675
1837...........	69,250,031	71,739,186	140,989,217	12,448,919	9,406,043	21,854,962	56,801,112	62,333,143	119,134,255
1838...........	60,860,005	52,857,399	113,717,404	7,986,411	4,466,384	12,452,795	52,873,594	48,391,015	101,264,609
1839...........	76,401,792	85,690,340	162,092,132	12,486,827	5,007,698	17,494,525	63,914,965	80,682,642	144,597,607
1840...........	57,196,204	49,945,315	107,141,519	12,384,503	5,805,809	18,190,312	44,811,701	44,139,506	86,951,207
1841...........	66,019,731	61,926,446	127,946,177	11,240,900	4,228,181	15,469,081	54,778,831	57,698,265	112,477,096
1842...........	30,627,486	69,534,601	100,162,087	6,837,084	4,884,454	11,721,538	23,790,402	64,650,147	88,440,549
1843...........	35,574,584	29,179,215	64,753,799	3,096,125	3,456,572	6,552,697	32,478,459	25,722,643	58,201,092
1844...........	24,766,881	83,668,154	108,435,035	7,522,359	3,962,508	11,484,867	17,224,522	79,705,646	96,950,168
1845...........	22,147,840	95,106,724	117,254,564	10,175,099	5,171,731	15,346,830	11,972,741	89,934,993	101,907,734

Treasury Department, *Register's Office, November* 29, 1845.

R. H. GILLET, *Register.*

Notes to preceding page.

1821.	Imported—free of duty	$10,082,313	
	dutiable	52,503,411	
			$62,585,724
	Exported—free of duty	10,764,757	
	dutiable	10,537,731	
			$21,302,488
	Consumed and on hand		41,283,236
1822.	Imported—free of duty	$7,298,708	
	dutiable	75,942,833	
			$83,241,541
	Exported—free of duty	11,184,896	
	dutiable	11,101,306	
			22,286,202
	Consumed and on hand		$60,955,339

A statement exhibiting the value of the exports of domestic produce and manufactures, and of foreign merchandise, re-exported, annually, from 1821 *to* 1845, *inclusive.*

Years ending September 30.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.				
	Domestic produce, &c.	Foreign merchandise re-exported.			Total value of exports.
		Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.	
1821	$43,671,894	$10,764,757	$10,537,731	$21,302,488	$64,974,382
1822	49,874,079	11,184.896	11,101,306	22,286,202	72,160,281
1823	47,155,408	7,696,749	19,846,873	27,543,622	74,699,030
1824	50,649 500	8,115,082	17,222,075	25,337,157	75,986,657
1825	66,944,745	9,885,840	22,704,803	32,590,643	99,535,388
1826	53,055,710	5,135,108	19,404,504	24,539,612	77,595,322
1827	58,921,691	7,785,150	15,617 986	23,403,136	82,324,827
1828	50,669,669	8.427,678	13,167,339	21,595,017	72,264,686
1829	55,700 193	5,231.077	11.427,401	16,658,478	72,358,671
1830	59,462,029	2,320,317	12,067,162	14,387,479	73,849,508
1831	61,277,057	7,599,043	12,434,483	20,033,526	81,310,583
1832	63,137,470	5,590.616	18,448,857	34,039,473	87,176,943
1833	70,317,698	7,410,766	12,411,969	19,822,735	90,140,433
1834	81,024,162	12,433,291	10,879,520	23,312,811	104,336,973
1835	101,189 082	12,760,840	7,743,655	20,504,495	121,693,577
1836	106,916 680	12,513,493	9,232,867	21,746,360	128,663,040
1837	95,564.414	12,448,919	9,406,043	21,854,962	117,419,376
1838	96,033,821	7,986,411	4,466,384	12,452,795	108,486,616
1839	103,533,891	12,486,827	5,007,698	17,494,525	121,028,416
1840	113,895,634	12.384,503	5,805,809	18,190,312	132,085,946
1841	106,382,722	11,240,900	4.228.181	15,469,081	121.851,803
1842	92.969,996	6,837,084	4,884,454	11,721,538	104,691,534
1843	77,793,783	3.096,125	3,456,572	6,552.697	84,346,480
1844	99,715,179	7,522,359	3,962,508	11,484.867	111,200,046
1845	99,299,776	10,175,099	5,171,731	15,346,830	114,646,606

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *Register's Office, November* 29, 1845.

R. H. GILLET, *Register.*

Statement showing the amount of foreign merchandise re-exported each year, from 1821, *to June* 30, 1845, *both inclusive, distinguishing free and dutiable goods.*

Years.	GOODS RE-EXPORTED.		Total.
	Free of duty.	Paying duty.	
1821	$10,764,757	$10,537,731	$21,302,488
1822	11,184,896	11,101,306	22,286,202
1823	7,696,749	19,846,873	27,543,622
1824	8,115,082	17,222,075	25.337,157
1825	9,885,840	22,704,803	32,590,643
1826	5,135,108	19,404,504	24,539,612
1827	7,785,150	15,617,986	23,403,136
1828	8,427,678	13,167,339	21,595,017
1829	5,231,077	11,427,401	16,658,478
1830	2,320,317	12,067,162	14,387,479
1831	7,599,043	12,434,483	20,033,526
1832	5,590,616	18,448,857	24,039,473
1833	7,410,766	12,411,969	19,822,735
1834	12,433,291	10,879,520	23,312,811
1835	12,760,840	7,743,655	20,504,495
1836	12,513,493	9,232.867	21,746,360
1837	12,448,919	9,406,043	21,854,962
1838	7,986,411	4,466,384	12,452,795
1839	12,486.827	5,007,698	17,494,525
1840	12,384,503	5,805,809	18,190,312
1841	11,240,900	4,228,181	15,469,081
1842	6,837,084	4,884,454	11,721,538
1843	3,096,125	3,456,572	6,552,697
1844	7,522,359	3,962,508	11,484,867
1845	10,175,099	5,171,731	15,346,830
	$219,032,930	$270,637,911	$489,670,841

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *Register's Office, Nov.* 11, 1845.

R. H. GILLET.

List of the several tariffs enacted by Congress, from 1789 *to* 1842.

No.	Character.	Successive tariffs.	Date of each act.
1	General	Tariff	July 4, 1789
2	Do	Tariff	Aug. 10, 1790
3	Do	Tariff	March 3, 1791
4	Do	Tariff	May 2, 1792
5	Special	Tariff "A. B., sugar, snuff, internal duties"	June 5, 1794
6	General	Tariff	June 7, 1794
7	Do	Tariff	Jan. 29, 1795
8	Do	Tariff	March 3, 1797
9	Special	Tariff "on salt," additional	July 8, 1797
10	Do	Tariff "on sugar and wines"	May 13, 1800
11	Do	Tariff, "Mediterranean fund"	Mar 26, 1804
12	Do	Tariff, "light money" &c	Mar. 27, 1804
13	Do	Tariff, (war,) "double duties"	July 1, 1812
14	Do	Tariff "on salt"	July 29, 1813
15	Do	Tariff, "double duties" continued	Feb. 5, 1816
16	General	Tariff, "minimum system began"	April 27, 1816
17	Special	Tariff "on iron and alum, supplementary to act of 1816"2	April 20, 1818
18	Do	Tariff "on wines"	March 3, 1819
19	General	Tariff, revised, "woollens, cottons," &c	May 22, 1824
20	Do	Tariff, "minimums *extended*"	May 19, 1828
21	Special	Tariff "on wines"	May 24, 1828
22	Do	Tariff "on coffee, tea," &c	May 20, 1830
23	Do	Tariff "on molasses"	May 29, 1830
24	Do	Tariff "on salt"	May 29, 1830
25	Do	Tariff "on French wines"	July 13, 1832
26	General	Tariff, "modification of other acts," and did not go fully into operation	July 14, 1832
27	Special	Tariff "on hardware, copper," &c	March 2, 1833
28	Compromise.	Tariff, "gradual reduction towards 20 per cent."	March 2, 1833
29	General	Tariff, "the one year"	Sept. 11, 1841
30	Do	Tariff, "the present in operation"	Aug. 30, 1842

AVERAGE RESULTS OF THE TARIFFS FROM 1821 TO 1844.

Tabular statement of the value of imports from October 1, 1820, *to the* 30*th June*, 1844; *the aggregate amount of duties payable; the estimated average per cent. which the duty bore to the aggregate amount of imports; the value of imports liable to duty, and the estimated average per cent. of the duty arising thereon.*

Years.	Value of imports in the years ending September 30.*	Aggregate amount of duties payable in the years ending December 31.†	Estimated average per cent. of duty on the aggregate value of imports.	Value of imports paying duties in the years ending Sept. 30.*	Estimated average per cent. of duties on dutiable imports.	Average per cent. on imports liable to duties for certain tariff periods.
1821	$62,585,724	$18,883,252	30.171	$52,503,411	35.695	36 302.2
1822	83,241,541	24,095,336	28.946	75,942,833	31.728	
1823	77,579,267	22,416,277	28.894	68,530,979	32.709	
1824	80,549,007	25,516,966	31.678	67,985,234	37.533	
1825	96,340,075	31,683,096	32.639	85,392,565	37.102	
1826	84,974,477	26,108,254	30.725	72,406,708	34.676	
1827	79,484.068	27,962,145	35.179	67,628,964	41.346	
1828	88,509,824	29,966,472	33.856	76,130,648	39.362	
1829	74,492,527	27,769,769	37.278	62,687,026	44.299	41 955,7
1830	70,876,920	28,417,055	40.009	58,130,675	48.884	
1831	103,191,124	36,623,270	35.489	89,734,499	40.812	
1832	101,029,266	29,356,056	29.056	86,779,813	33.828	
1833	108,118,311	24,196.103	22.379	75,670,361	31.975	31 201.9
1834	126,521,332	18,987,952	15.007	58,128,152	32.665	
1835	149,895,742	25,931.233	17.299	71,955,249	36.038	
1836	189,980,035	30,991,510	16.313	97,923,524	31.648	
1837	140 989,217	18,191,605	12.903	71,739,186	25·357	
1838	113,717,404	19,993,861	17.557	52,857,399	37.835	
1839	162,092,132	25,631,888	15.813	85,690,340	29.912	
1840	107,141,519	15,178,975	14.176	49,945,315	30.391	
1841	127,946,177	19,941,090	15.585	61,926,446	32.301	
1842	100,162,087	16,686,341	16.589	69,534,601	23.997	
For 9 months ending June 30, 1843.	64,753,799	7,508,627	11.595	29,179,215	25,732	30 432.5
For the year ending June 30, 1844.	108,435,035	29,395,762	27.109	83,668,154	35,133	
Total averg's	....	....	....	....	....	34 973,175

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* Authority, "commercial statements," annually.

† Authority, "receipts and expenditures," for respective years.

THE NEW TARIFF.

We will not pretend to conceal the chagrin and mortification with which we are obliged to record the final passage of the new Tariff bill; overturning, as it does, the wise system of revenue and protection which has existed from the adoption of the Constitution to the present time; varying, it is true, in degree, but never, until now, abandoning the principle of protection to American labor and skill.

We confess ourselves so much taken by surprise at the most extraordinary course which has marked the whole proceedings in this first triumph over the general welfare of the country, that we are not prepared to go into much discussion upon the iniquitous tendency of the measure.

The deed is done! Party has triumphed over the real interests of the country; and those who have perpetrated this national suicide will be held to a strict accountability. If any there be, who honestly believe that an increased importation of foreign manufactures at lower duties, will produce sufficient revenue, and, at the same time, lessen the burdens borne by the people, they will find themselves grossly deceived.

The real wealth of a nation consists in its industry; in its availing itself of its capital, skill, and labor, to the full development of all its natural endowments, and its general moral and physical advantages, resulting as well from the genius of its people, as from the peculiar nature of its position and institutions.

Under the Tariff of 1842, all the varied interests of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, were wisely balanced; and the annals of the country will be searched in vain, to find a period in which the happiness of the greatest number has been so well cared for and sustained as since the passage of that act.

This is not the time, nor are we prepared to go into any detailed examination of the mighty consequences to result from the unhappy change, which has been wrought by the abandonment of a system so wisely arranged, and so well tested by experience. If we do not overrate the value of the many facts and arguments which have already appeared in this work, our readers will have perceived a strong case made out—that the great evil the country is to experience by the ill-advised change which is consummated by the new Tariff, will be a paralyzation of its industry. Nothing, we think, is more certain than this. The new system is, indeed, specially framed for it. Its warmest advocates, in effect, admit this, when they tell us that we shall import a sufficiently increased amount of the proceeds of foreign labor to sustain our present revenue under the decreased rate of duties. Of what these augmented importations are to consist, we are not left in doubt; the new bill is expressly framed to encourage the increased importation of manufactured articles, and to discourage the importation of raw materials. What, then, is it, that is thus to come into the country in increased quantities, but foreign labor and skill? for the real difference in value between a raw material and a manufactured article, is merely labor and skill. The great law of demand and supply operates upon these, as it operates upon all other commodities, and the increased importation of labor and skill will as certainly decrease the value of those of our own citizens, as the importation of an increased quantity of any article of merchandize beyond the demand for it, will diminish its value.

But what is most extraordinary in the consummation of this measure, is, that it has been brought about, as Mr. Webster most justly declares, contrary to the wishes of a large majority of the people, and against the judgment of a number of those who gave it their support, and by some so openly expressed in their places in the Senate. Nay, a solemn vote of the Senate decided against it, and sent it to a committee, with instructions to amend it—but all in vain!!

Can there be a more thorough condemnation of the measure itself, than this well known repudiation of it by the Senate, and by those who, from party motives, or forced obedience to instructions, have fastened this incubus upon the country? What a comment, indeed, is this upon the intolerant spirit of party! We forbear to express the indignation we feel at a course so destructive to the very spirit and genius of free institutions. For above all other things, we are determined that this journal shall be, while under the management of the writer, a National Magazine and Industrial Record; sedulously avoiding all party distinctions. We have but one object in view, and that is to keep a repository for all facts and statistics, tending to show the real working of our system, with such temperate arguments as shall elucidate them, by appeals, not to the passions, but to the reason: to this we have adhered, and shall still adhere—nothing fearing for the ultimate triumph of the system we advocate, however it may, as in the present case, be assailed by party machinery, and be thus for a time overclouded.

The indomitable spirit of the industrious and enterprising citizens of this Union, in whatever section they may reside, is not to be put down. We are rejoiced to know that the good seed is sown in several of the southern states, and it will grow and prosper there. For a few years economy and retrenchment must be the order of the day; this will lead to the closest investigations in every process of converting raw materials into their respective fabrics, and will, in so much, add to the strength with which we shall be enabled to start again with renewed vigor in competition with our great trans-atlantic rivals, when, under a new state of things, wiser counsel shall prevail, and the real American spirit shall direct the legislation of the general government.

What we most deplore in the interim is, that the real bone and muscle of the country have to suffer from the fall which must inevitably take place in the price of labor, and that thus the innocent will be punished; but as this is unavoidable, we will indulge the hope that it may be of the shortest possible duration.

In conclusion we have only to say, that reluctant as we are to place upon record such an anti-American statute as this law, we think it necessary to insert it, that our readers, one and all, may not only know the worst, but that they may examine it at their leisure and in detail; and we shall esteem it a particular favor to hear from any one of them, who will be kind enough to give us information as to its practical working; for on the diffusion of such information much is depending.

Enlighten the people, and they will respond to a call to stand by their country, and defend it as well from the wiles and frauds of foreign influence, as from the unhallowed pollution of its soil by a foreign invader.

A BILL reducing the duty on Imports, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the first day of December next, in lieu of the duties heretofore imposed by law on the articles hereinafter mentioned, and on such as may now be exempt from duty, there shall be levied, collected and paid, on the goods, wares and merchandise herein enumerated and provided for, imported from foreign countries, the following rates of duty—that is to say:

On goods, wares and merchandise mentioned in schedule A, a duty of *one hundred* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares and merchandise mentioned in schedule B, a duty of *forty* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares and merchandise mentioned in schedule C, a duty of *thirty* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares and merchandise mentioned in schedule D, a duty of *twenty-five* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares and merchandise mentioned in schedule E, a duty of *twenty* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares and merchandise mentioned in schedule F, a duty of *fifteen* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares and merchandise mentioned in schedule G, a duty of *ten* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares and merchandise mentioned in schedule H, a duty of *five* per centum ad valorem.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That from and after the first day of December next, the goods, wares and merchandise mentioned in schedule I shall be exempt from duty.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That from and after the first day of December next, there shall be levied, collected and paid, on all goods, wares and merchandise imported from foreign countries, and not especially provided for in this act, a duty of *twenty* per centum ad valorem.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That in all cases in which the invoice or entry shall not contain the weight or quantity or measure of goods, wares or merchandise now weighed or measured, or gauged, the same shall be weighed, gauged, or measured, at the expense of the owner, agent or consignee.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That from and after the first day of December next, in lieu of the bounty heretofore authorized by law to be paid on the exportation of pickled fish of the fisheries of the United States, there shall be allowed, on the exportation thereof, if cured with foreign salt, a drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on the salt, and no more, to be ascertained under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That all goods, wares and merchandise imported after the passage of this act, and which may be in the public stores on the second day of December next, shall be subject to no other duty upon the entry thereof than if the same were imported respectively after that day.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the twelfth section of the act, entitled "An act to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved August thirty, eighteen hundred and forty-two, shall be, and the same is hereby so far modified, that all goods imported from this side the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn may remain in the public stores for the space of one year, instead of the term of sixty days prescribed in the said section; and that all goods imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn may remain in the public stores one year, instead of the term of ninety days prescribed in the said section.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the owner, consignee or agent, of imports which have been actually purchased, on entry of the same, to make such addition in the entry to the cost or value given in the invoice, as in his opinion may raise the same to the true market value of such imports in the principal markets of the country whence the importation shall have been made, or in which the goods imported shall have been originally manufactured or produced, as the case may be; and to add thereto all costs and charges which, under existing laws, would form part of the true value at the port where the same may be entered, upon which the duties should be assessed. And it shall be the duty of the collector within whose district the same may be imported or entered, to cause the dutiable value of such imports to be appraised, estimated and ascertained in accordance with the provisions of existing laws; and if the appraised value thereof shall exceed, by ten per centum, or more, the value so declared on the entry, then, in addition to the duties imposed by law on the same, there shall be levied, collected and paid, a duty of twenty per centum ad valorem on such appraised value: *Provided, nevertheless*, That under no circumstances shall the duty be assessed upon an amount less than the invoice value; any law of Congress to the contrary notwithstanding.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That the deputies of any collector, naval officer, or surveyor, and the clerks employed by any collector, naval officer, surveyor or appraiser, who are not by existing laws required to be sworn, shall, before entering upon their respective duties, or, if already employed, before continuing in the discharge thereof, take and subscribe an oath or affirmation faithfully and diligently to perform such duties, and to use their best endeavors to prevent and detect frauds upon the revenue of the United States; which oath or affirmation shall be administered by the collector of the port or district where the said deputies or clerks may be employed, and shall be of a form to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That no officer or other person connected with the navy of the United States, shall, under any pretence, import in any ship or vessel of the United States any goods, wares or merchandise liable to the payment of any duty.

Sec. 11. ***And be it further enacted,*** That all acts and parts of acts repugnant to the provisions of this act, be, and the same are hereby repealed.

SCHEDULE A—*at* 100 *per cent.*

Brandy and other spirits distilled from grain, or other materials; cordials, absynthe, arrack, curacoa, kirschenwasser, liqueurs, maraschino, ratafia, and all other spirituous beverages of a similar character.

SCHEDULE B—*at* 40 *per cent.*

Alabaster and spar ornaments; almonds; anchovies, sardines, and all other fish preserved in oil; camphor, refined; cassia; cloves; composition tops for tables, or other articles of furniture; comfits, sweetmeats, or fruit preserved in sugar, brandy or molasses; currants; dates; figs; ginger root, dried or green; glass, cut; mace; manufactures of cedar wood, granadilla, ebony, mahogany, rosewood and satin wood; nutmegs; pimento; prepared vegetables, meats, poultry and game, sealed or enclosed in cans, or otherwise; prunes; raisins; scagliola tops for tables, or other articles of furniture; cigars, snuff, paper cigars, and all other manufactures of tobacco; wines, Burgundy, champagne, claret, Madeira, port, sherry, and all other wines and imitations of wines.

SCHEDULE C—*at* 30 *per cent.*

Argentine, alabata, or German silver, manufactured or unmanufactured; ale, beer, and porter in casks or bottles; articles embroidered with gold, silver, or other metal; articles worn by men, women, or children, of whatever material composed, made up, or made wholly or in part, by hand; asses' skins; balsams, cosmetics, essences, extracts, pastes, perfumes, and tinctures, used either for the toilet or for medicinal purposes; baskets, and all other articles composed of grass, osier, palmleaf, straw, whalebone, or willow, not otherwise provided for; bay rum; beads, of amber, composition or wax, and all other beads; benzoates; bologna sausages; bracelets, braids, chains, curls or ringlets composed of hair, or of which hair is a component part; braces, suspenders, webbing or other fabrics, composed wholly or in part of India rubber, not otherwise provided for; brooms and brushes of all kinds; cameos, real and imitation, and mosaic, real and imitation, when set in gold, silver or other metal; canes and sticks for walking, finished or unfinished; capers, pickles and sauces of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; corks; earthen, China, and stoneware, and all other wares composed of earthy and mineral substances not otherwise provided for; fire crackers; flats, braids, plaits, spartere and willow squares used for making hats or bonnets; glass tumblers, plain, moulded or pressed, not cut or printed; hats and bonnets for men, women and children, composed of straw, satin straw, chip grass, palm leaf, willow, or any other vegetable substance, or of hair, whalebone, or other material, not otherwise provided for; caps, hats, muffs and tippets of fur, and all other manufactures of fur, or of which fur shall be a component material; caps, gloves, leggings, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, and all similar articles made on frames, worn by men, women, or children, and not otherwise provided for; card cases, pocket books, shell boxes, souvenirs, and all similar articles, of whatever material composed; carpets, carpeting, hearth rugs, bedsides, and other portions of carpeting, being either Aubusson, Brussels, ingrain, Saxony, Turkey, Venetian, Wilton, or any other similar fabric; carriages and parts of carriages; cayenne pepper; cheese; cinnamon; clocks and parts of clocks; clothing, ready made, and wearing apparel of every description, of whatever material composed, made up or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor, sempstress or manufacturer; coach and harness furniture of all kinds; coal; coke and culm of coal; combs of all kinds; compositions of glass or paste, when set; confectionery of all kinds, not otherwise provided for;

coral, cut or manufactured; cotton cords, gimps and galloons; court plaster; crayons of all kinds; cutlery of all kinds; diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, and imitations of precious stones, when set in gold, silver, or other metal; dolls and toys of all kinds; epaulets, galloons, laces, knots, stars, tassels, tresses, and wings of gold, silver, or other metal; fans and fire screens of every description, of whatever material composed; feathers and flowers, artificial or ornamental, and parts thereof, of whatever material composed; frames and sticks for umbrellas, parasols and sunshades, finished or unfinished; furniture, cabinet and household; ginger, ground; grapes; gum benzoin or benjamin; hair pencils; hat bodies of cotton; hemp, unmanufactured; honey; human hair, cleaned or prepared for use; ink and inkpowder; iron in bars, blooms, bolts, hoops, loops, pigs, rods, slabs, or other form, not otherwise provided for; castings of iron; old or scrap iron; vessels of cast iron; japanned ware of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; jewelry, real or imitation; jet, and manufactures of jet, and imitations thereof; lead pencils; maccaroni, vermicelli, gelatine, jellies, and all similar preparations; manufactures of the bark and cork tree, except corks; manufactures of bone, shell, horn, pearl, ivory or vegetable ivory; manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares, not otherwise provided for, of brass, copper, gold, iron, lead, pewter, platina, silver, tin, or other metal, or of which either of those metals or any other metal shall be the component material of chief value; manufactures of cotton, linen, silk, wool, or worsted, if embroidered or tamboured in the loom or otherwise, by machinery, or with the needle, or other process; manufactured articles, vessels and wares of glass, or of which glass shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; colored, stained, or painted glass; glass crystals for watches; glasses or pebbles for spectacles; paintings on glass, porcelain glass; manufactures and articles of leather, or of which leather shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for; manufactures and articles of marble; marble paving tiles, and all other marble more advanced in manufacture than in slabs or blocks in the rough; manufactures of paper, or of which paper is a component material, not otherwise provided for; manufactures, articles and wares of papier mache; manufactures of wood, or of which wood is a component part, not otherwise provided for; manufactures of wool, or of which wool shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for; medicinal preparations, not otherwise provided for; metallic pens; mineral waters; molasses, muskets, rifles and other fire-arms; nuts, not otherwise provided for; oil-cloth of every description, of whatever material composed; ochres and ochry earths used in the composition of painters' colors, whether dry or ground in oil; oils, volatile, essential or expressed, and not otherwise provided for; olive oil, in casks, other than salad oil; olive salad oil; and all other olive oil not otherwise provided for; olives; paper, antiquarian, demy, drawing, elephant, foolscap, imperial, letter, and all other paper not otherwise provided for; paper boxes and all other fancy boxes; paper envelopes: parasols and sunshades; parchment; pepper; plated and gilt ware of all kinds; playing cards; plums; potatoes; red chalk and pencils; saddlery of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; salmon, preserved; sewing silk, in the gum or purified; shoes composed wholly of India rubber; sealing wax; silk twist and silk composed of silk and mohair; side-arms of every description; silver-plated metal, in sheets or other form; soap, Castile, perfumed Windsor, and all other kinds; sugar of all kinds; tobacco, unmanufactured; syrup of sugar; twines and pack thread, of whatever material composed; umbrellas; vellum; vinegar; wafers; water colors; fire-wood and wood unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for; wool, unmanufactured.

SCHEDULE D—*at* 25 *per cent.*

Buttons and button moulds, of all kinds; borax or tincal; Burgundy pitch; calomel, and all other mercurial preparations; camphor, crude; feather beds, feathers for beds, and downs of all kinds; floss silks; grass cloth; hair cloth,

hair seating, and all other manufactures of hair not otherwise provided for; jute, Sisal grass, coir, and other vegetable substances unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for; baizes, bockings, flannels and floor cloths, of whatever material composed, not otherwise provided for; cables and cordage, tarred or untarred; cotton laces, cotton insertings, cotton trimming laces, cotton laces and braids; manufactures composed wholly of cotton, not otherwise provided for; manufactures of goat's hair or mohair, or of which goat's hair or mohair shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; matting, Chinese, and other floor matting and mats made of flags, jute, or grass; manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; manufactures of worsted, or of which worsted shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; roofing slates; slates other than roofing slates; woollen and worsted yarn.

SCHEDULE E—*at* 20 *per cent.*

Acids, acetic, acetous, benzoic, boracic, chromic, citric, muriatic, white and yellow, nitric, pyroligneous and tartaric, and all other acids of every description, used for chemical or medicinal purposes, or for manufacturing, or in the fine arts, not otherwise provided for; Angora, Thibet, and other goat's hair or mohair unmanufactured; cedar wood, ebony, granadilla, mahogany, rosewood, and satin wood, unmanufactured; cream of tartar; extract of indigo; extracts and decoctions of logwoods and other dyewoods not otherwise provided for: extracts of madder; flaxseed; green turtle; gunny cloth; alum; amber; ambergris; anniseed; animal carbon; antimony, crude and regulus of; arrow root; articles, not in a crude state, used in dyeing or tanning, not otherwise provided for; assafœtida; bacon; bananas; barley; beef; beeswax; berries, vegetables, flowers and barks, not otherwise provided for; bismuth; bitter apples; blankets of all kinds; blank books, bound or unbound; blue or Roman vitriol, or sulphate of copper, boards, planks, staves, lath, scantling, spars, hewn and sawed timber, timber to be used in building wharves; bronze liquor; iron liquor; lac spirits; manna; marble in the rough slab or block, unmanufactured; Dutch and bronze metal in leaf; needles of all kinds for sewing, darning, or knitting; ozier or willow prepared for basket makers' use; paving stones; paving and roofing tiles and bricks; boucho leaves; breccia; bronze powder; butter; cardimum; calamine; cantharides; caps, gloves, leggings, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, made on frames, composed wholly of cotton, worn by men, women and children; cassia buds; castor oil; castorum; chocolate; chromate of lead; chromate, bichromate, hydriodate, and prussiate of potash; cobalt; cocoanuts; coculus indicus; copperas or green vitriol, or sulphate of iron; copper rods, bolts, nails and spikes; copper bottoms; plaster of Paris when ground; quicksilver; saffron and saffron cake; seppia; steel, all than otherwise provided for; copper in sheets or plates, called braziers' copper, and other sheets of copper not otherwise provided for; cubebs; dried pulp; emery; ether; feldspar; fig blue; fish, foreign, whether fresh, smoked, salted, dried, or pickled, not otherwise provided for; fish glue or isinglass; fish skins; flour of sulphur; Frankfort black; French chalk; fruit, green or ripe, not otherwise provided for; fulminates, or fulminating powders; furs dressed on the skin; gamboge; glue; gunpowder; hair, curled, moss, seaweed, and all other vegetable substances used for beds or mattresses; hams; hats of wool; hat bodies, made of wool, or of which wool shall be a component material of chief value; hatters' plush, composed of silk and cotton, but of which cotton is the component material of chief value; hempseed or linseed, and rapeseed oil, and all other oils used in painting; Indian corn and corn meal; ipecacuanha; iridium; iris or orris root; ivory or bone black; jalap; juniper berries; lac sulphur; lamp-black; lard; leather, tanned, bend or sole; leather, upper, of all kinds; lead, in pigs, bars, or sheets; leaden pipes; leaden shot; leeches; linens, of all kinds; liquorice paste, juice, or root; litharge;

malt; manganese; manufactures of flax, not otherwise provided for; manufactures of hemp, not otherwise provided for; marine coral, unmanufactured; medicinal drugs, roots, and leaves, in a crude state, not otherwise provided for; metals, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for; mineral and bituminous substances, in a crude state, not otherwise provided for; musical instruments, of all kinds, and strings for musical instruments, of whip gut or catgut, and all other strings of the same material; nitrate of lead; oats and oatmeal; oils, neatsfoot and other animal oil, spermaceti, whale and other fish oil, the produce of foreign fisheries; opium; oranges, lemons, and limes; orange and lemon peel; patent mordant; paints, dry or ground in oil, not otherwise provided for; paper hangings and paper for screens or fire boards; pearl or hulled barley; periodicals and other works in the course of printing and publication in the United States; pineapples; pitch; plantains; plumbago; pork; potassium; Prussian blue; pumpkins; putty; quills; red chalk; rhubarb; rice, or paddy; roll brimstone; Roman cement; rye and rye flour; saddlery, common, tinned, or japanned; sago; sal soda, and all carbonates of soda, by whatever name designated, not otherwise provided for; salts, epsom, glauber, Rochelle, and all other salts and preparations of salts, not otherwise provided for; sarsaparilla; shaddocks; sheathing paper; skins, tanned and dressed, of all kinds; skins, of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; slate pencils; smalts; spermaceti candles and tapers; spirits of turpentine; sponges; spunk; squills; starch; stearine candles and tapers; stereotype plates; still bottoms; sulphate of barytes, crude or refined; sulphate of quinine; tallow candles; tapioca; tar; thread laces and inserting; type metal; types, new or old; vanilla beans; verdigris; velvet, in the piece, composed wholly of cotton; velvet, in the piece, composed of cotton and silk, but of which cotton is the component material of chief value; vermillion; wax candles and tapers; whalebone, the produce of foreign fisheries; wheat and wheat flour; white and red lead; whiting, or Paris white; white vitriol, or sulphate of zinc; window glass, broad, crown, or cylinder; woollen listings; yams.

SCHEDULE F—*at* 15 *per cent.*

Arsenic; bark, Peruvian; bark, Quilla; Brazil paste; brimstone, crude, in bulk; cork tree bark, unmanufactured; codilla, or tow of hemp or flax; diamonds, glazier's, set or not set; dragon's blood; flax, unmanufactured; gold and silver leaf; mineral kermes; silk, raw, not more advanced in manufacture than singles tram and thrown or organzine; terne tin plates; tin foil; tin in plates or sheets; tin plates galvanized, not otherwise provided for; steel in bars, cast, shear, or German; zinc, spelter, or tentenegue, in sheets.

SCHEDULE G—*at* 10 *per cent.*

Ammonia; annatto, rancon or Orleans; barilla; books printed, magazines, pamphlets, periodicals, and illustrated newspapers, bound or unbound, not otherwise provided for; bleaching powders or chloride of lime; building stones; burr stones, wrought or unwrought; cameos and mosaics, and imitations thereof, not set; chronometers, box or ships, and parts thereof; cocoa; cochineal; cocoa shells; compositions of glass or paste, not set; cudbear; diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, and imitations thereof, when not set; engravings or plates, bound or unbound; hempseed, linseed, and rapeseed; fuller's earth; furs, hatters', dressed or undressed, not on the skin; furs, undressed, when on the skin; goldbeaters' skins; gum Arabic; gum Senegal; gum Tragacanth; gum Barbary; gum East India; gum Jedda; gum substitute or burnt starch; indigo; kelp; natron; terra japonica or catechu; hair of all kinds, uncleaned and unmanufactured; India rubber, in bottles, slabs or sheets, unmanufactured; lemon and lime juice; lime; maps and charts; music and music paper with lines, bound or unbound; nux vomica; oils, palm and cocoanut; orpiment; palm leaf, unmanufactured; polishing stones; pumice and pumice stone; rattans and reeds, unmanufactured; rotten

stone; sal ammonia; saltpetre, (or nitrate of soda, or potash,) refined or partially refined; soda ash, sulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol: tallow, marrow, and all other grease, and soap stocks and soap stuffs, not otherwise provided for; watches and parts of watches; watch materials of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; woad or pastel.

SCHEDULE H—*at 5 per cent.*

Alcornoque, argol, or crude tartar; bells, when old, or bell metal, fit only to be remanufactured; brass, in pigs or bars; Brazil wood, and all other dyewoods in sticks; brass, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured; bristles; chalk, not otherwise provided for; clay, unwrought; copper, in pigs or bars; copper, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured; flints; grindstones, wrought or unwrought; berries, nuts, and vegetables used exclusively in dyeing, or in composing dyes, but no article shall be classed as such that has undergone any manufacture; ivory, unmanufactured; ivory nuts, or vegetable ivory; madder root; nutgalls; pearl, mother of; lastings, suitable for shoes, bootees, or buttons, exclusively; manufactures of mohair cloth, silk twist, or other manufactures of cloth suitable for the manufacture of shoes, boots, bootees, or buttons exclusively; horns, horn-tips, bones, bone-tips, and teeth, unmanufactured; kermes; lac dye; lac spirits; madder, ground; nickle; pewter, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured; rags, of whatever material; raw hides and skins of all kinds, whether dried, salted, or pickled, not otherwise provided for; safflower; saltpetre, or nitrate of soda, or potash, when crude; seedlac; shellac; sumac; tin, in pigs, bars, or blocks; tortoise and other shells unmanufactured; tumeric; waste, or shoddy; weld; zinc, spelter, or teutenegue, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for.

SCHEDULE I—*Free articles.*

Animals imported for breed; bullion, gold and silver; cabinets of coins, medals, and other collections of antiquities; coffee and tea, when imported direct from the place of their growth or production, in American vessels, or in foreign vessels entitled by reciprocal treaties to be exempt from discriminating duties, tonnage, and other charges; coffee, the growth or production of the possessions of the Netherlands, imported from the Netherlands in the same manner; coins, gold, silver, and copper; copper ore; copper when imported for the United States Mint; cotton; felt, adhesive, for sheathing; garden seeds, and other seeds not otherwise provided for; goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States exported to a foreign country, and brought back to the United States in the same condition as when exported, upon which no drawback or bounty has been allowed; *Provided*, that all the regulations to ascertain the identity thereof, prescribed by existing laws, or which may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall be complied with; guano; household effects, old and in use, of persons or families from foreign countries, if used abroad by them, and not intended for any other person or persons, or for sale; junk, old; models of inventions and other improvements in the arts; *Provided*, That no article or articles shall be deemed a model or improvement which can be fitted for use; oakum; oil, spermaceti, whale, and other fish, of American fisheries, and all other articles the produce of such fisheries; paintings and statuary, the production of American artists residing abroad, and all other paintings and statuary: *Provided*, The same be imported in good faith as objects of taste, and not of merchandise; personal and household effects (not merchandise) of citizens of the United States dying abroad; plaster of Paris, unground; platina, unmanufactured; sheathing copper, but no copper to be considered such, and admitted free, except in sheets forty-eight inches long and fourteen inches wide, and weighing from fourteen to thirty-four ounces the square foot; sheathing metal; specimens of natural history, mineralogy, or botany; trees, shrubs, bulbs, plants, and roots not otherwise provided for; wearing apparel in actual use,

and other personal effects not merchandise; professional books, implements, instruments, and tools of trade, occupation, or employment, of persons arriving in the United States: *Provided*, That this exemption shall not be construed to include machinery or other articles imported for use in any manufacturing establishment or for sale.

SACO AND BIDDEFORD MANUFACTURING COMPANIES.

We have obtained the following particulars respecting the manufacturing operations of Saco and Biddeford, in the state of Maine:

The *York Manufacturing Company* was organized April 6, 1831, under an act of incorporation passed March 16, 1831. Having purchased the property of the Saco Manufacturing Company for sixty thousand dollars, they proceeded, under the direction of Samuel Batchelder, Esq., to erect their first mill, which was put in operation July 5, 1832. The length of the building is 210 feet, width 46 feet, and five stories in height, including the attic.

Their second mill was put in operation May 9, 1836, and the third, April 19, 1838. Both of the above are of the same dimensions, viz: 145 feet in length, 46 in breadth, and five stories in height. Their fourth mill was built in 1841, and put in operation Nov. 2, 1843. Length 175 feet, breadth 46, height five stories.

The four mills contain 750 looms, and about 23,000 spindles. They now manufacture 5,000 pieces or 150,000 yards of cloth per week, and use 120 bales of cotton, or 20 bales per day. The number of hands employed last month was, females 1,006—males 210—making in the whole 1,216—and the amount paid for board and wages for four weeks was more than *fourteen thousand dollars.*

The price of board for females is $1,20 per week, for men $1,50 to $1,75.

Among the men are twenty-seven employed as overseers of different branches of the business, whose pay averages $600 per year. The wages of about one half the whole number of females, exclusive of board, averages from $1 50 to $3 00 per week,

viz: 123 from $1 50 to $1 75,
198 " $1 75 to $2 00,
249 " $2 00 to $3 00.

Among them are a considerable number whose wages amount to more than 80 cents per day, and one, who for six months has received an average of one dollar per day, board included.

Those of less experience receive a lower rate of wages, generally from one dollar to one dollar twenty cents per week, after the first few weeks.

The cost of the indigo used is $600 per week, or $100 per day. The quantity of copperas is sixty tons per year, or 1,300 lbs. per week. The quantity of logwood, sumach, fustic and other dyewoods, about 800 lbs. per week.

The quantity of potato starch about 60 tons, or more than one ton per week. It requires one bushel of potatoes to make eight pounds of starch, so that for one year's supply of starch would require 16,800 bushels of potatoes.

The capital of the Company at the commencement was three hundred thousand dollars. This has been increased, as their business required, until 1839, when the whole amount assessed and paid in was one million.

The York Manufacturing Company, from time to time, in the progress of their business, purchased mills and other real estate in Saco and Biddeford, so as to unite the whole of the lower falls on both sides of the river. The whole fall is 32 feet, and the mills are situated directly upon tide-water, so that schooners of 100 tons discharge at the wharves within a few rods of the mills.

In 1839 the *Saco Water Power Company* was organized, and purchased of the York Company all their water-power and real estate, except what was necessary for carrying on their own manufacturing operations.

In 1841, the Water Power Company, under the direction of Rufus Nichols, Esq., built on the Biddeford side of the river a machine shop 145 feet long and 46 feet wide, five stories in height, including the basement, for the purpose of building machinery. They have also a large blacksmith shop, and are well provided with tools and apparatus for building machinery of as good quality and workmanship as can be obtained in New-England.

The capital of the Water Power Company is $300,000. Men employed, 225 to 250.

In 1844, the *Laconia Company* was organized with a capital of $800,000. Within the year past the Water Power Company have built in Biddeford for the Laconia Company a mill 236 feet in length, which is now nearly ready to go into operation, under the care of Otis Holmes, Esq., with 10,944 spindles and 330 looms. This will require three or four hundred more hands, and including those directly and indirectly employed, with their families, and the different branches of business necessarily connected with the manufacturing operations, will add to the population of the place seven or eight hundred people.

This increase of manufacturing population affords a very important market to the farmers in the neighboring towns, as all their provisions are purchased, and receiving their pay in cash every month, there need be no long accounts or doubtful debts. The Laconia Company have also contracted with the Water Power Company for building another mill of much larger dimensions than any of the foregoing, the foundation of which is now in progress.

The business here has so far resulted very satisfactorily to the proprietors. An impression has sometimes been given, that because a business is profitable to the proprietor it must be unprofitable to the laborer. Those who have tried it can best answer the question, whether they are better paid in a successful or an unsuccessful concern. A business which yields little profit can hardly afford the means of paying liberal wages. The profits of manufacturing depend in a great measure upon the goods being suited to the market where they are sold; and because they sell for a good profit, is by no means to be considered a proof that those who make them are not well paid. In fact, we learn that the rate of wages paid by the York Manufacturing Company has never been higher than at this time.

Few places in the United States are superior to this for manufacturing operations. Combining the advantages of transportation by rail-road or by navigation, with ample water power directly upon the tide, where coal and other heavy articles can be delivered as cheap as at Boston, or other northern ports, with abundance of lumber and other building materials, an inexhaustible supply of granite within half a mile, and clay for brick upon the spot,—it is not common to find united so many facilities for building.

Situated in a healthy part of the country, where provisions are plenty, and surrounded by an industrious and intelligent population, there is a good supply of hands, both male and female, for the mills now in operation, and for such others as may be built.

CALICO PRINTING IN PROVIDENCE.

PROVIDENCE, July, 1846.

Mr. Redwood Fisher:

Dear Sir:—I am very desirous to see, in your journal, an exact statement, and a full one, of the manufacturing, and particularly of the printing resources of our country.

The list annexed I have made up with some care, and is as near the exact truth as can be arrived at without visiting each of the establishments in person. It comprises all the printing establishments in Rhode Island, and will give you a good idea of the *weight* of our little state in this branch of industry.

Yours respectfully, T. L. D.

Philip Allen & Son	8	Machines,	160 blocking tables,	6000	pieces	weekly.
Jacob Dunwell & Co.	8	"	300 " "	5000 Cottons, 1000 De Laines.		"
Amasa & William Sprague	7	"	80 " "	5000	pieces	"
Benjamin Cozzens	7	"	100 " "	5000	"	"
George & William Chapin	6	"	60 tables and 8 bl'k'g machines	5000	"	"
Woonasquetucket Co.	6	"	80 tables,	5000	"	"
Arnoldville Works	2	"	......	2600	"	"
New-England Works	3	"	......	3000	"	"
Hunt	1	"	......	1000	"	"
Home Works	2	"	8 tables,	2000	"	"
Greene & Pike	1	"	indigo blues,	1200	"	"
Cooke & Co.	1	"	ditto,	1200	"	"
Shinkwin	3	"	800,000 handkerchiefs per annum.			
Williams & Hayward	1	"	12 tables,	1000	"	"
O. Taft	2	"	......	2000	"	"
Narragansett	1	"	De Laines,	500	"	"
Wright & Tasker	3	"	......	3000	"	"
Pimley	1	"	......	1000	"	"
Royal Sibley	1	"	pantaloons and vestings,	1000	"	"
Crawford & Kennedy	1	"	......	1000	"	"
Abbot & Bliss	4	"	......	4000	"	"

MINING AND OTHER INTELLIGENCE.

From the London Mining Journal, we take the following extracts as interesting to our readers:

THE SCOTCH PIG-IRON TRADE.

To the Editor of the Mining Journal.—Sir,—The following are extracts from some letters received from Glasgow, on the subject of Scotch pig-iron—the correctness may be relied upon; if you think them worthy a place in the *Mining Journal*, I shall feel obliged by your inserting them.—An Old Subscriber: *Liverpool, June* 3.

Extract.

Sir,—The following is the true cost of Scotch pig-iron at this time, put free on board at Glasgow:—

1 *ton* 19 *cwts.* calcined ironstone, at 20s.	£1 19 0
2 " 15 " coal (this includes that used for engines, heating blast, &c.,) at 8s.	1 2 0
0 " 8 " lime	0 2 0
Transit of pig-iron to put on board at Glasgow, averages	0 3 6
Rent, power, wages, &c.	0 8 6
	£3 15 0
Contingencies, 5 per cent	0 3 9
Total	£3 18 9

As many of the makers buy largely of coal, ironstone, &c., it will then cost them more. The make of all the furnaces does not exceed 9500 tons per week. I calculate upon an average of make for 12 months—not upon a single good week's work, which is too much the fashion here to do. As to the make increasing to any extent, that is quite out of the question—we have not sufficient hands for the present works; and, as many new railroads will soon be started, I think there will be some trouble in this matter. I give you this calculation, which you may depend is very near the mark; you know I have no interest in the matter, except seeing my employers getting better paid for their capital and time. Yours, very sincerely, W. B.

Glasgow, May 29.

THE IRON TRADE.

Birmingham, Wednesday.—The ironmasters of Staffordshire are now congratulating themselves that they resolved to maintain the present high and unprecedented prices of iron Two weeks ago it was the intention of some of them to blow out a number of furnaces, in order that they might keep the supply fully within the rates of current demand. Now, there is not only no intention to reduce the make, but on the contrary, a confident expectation that the trade will still further improve, and that an advance rather than a reduction will have to be proposed at next meeting. This calculation is founded on two important considerations, viz:—1. The prospect of a larger number of railway bills passing than a few weeks since was contemplated; and 2, the abolition of the corn-laws, by which American orders will be multiplied. From analysis of railway bills in progress, which was given in the *Morning Chronicle*, of Tuesday, it appears that preambles of bills have been moved, which, if sanctioned by Parliament, will give power to lay down about 3000 miles of railway. Assuming that the same weight of rails will be used as was required for the London and Birmingham, on which there are 35,000 tons, the total quantity of iron necessary to make the rails of these 3000 miles, will be 937,491 tons. Now, the total quantity of iron smelted in England and Wales is about a million and a quarter, and in Scotland half a million per annum, so that it would take more than half one year's produce to supply this demand; or, should the construction of the various lines extend over the Parliamentary time—three years—upwards of 300,000 tons will annually be called for in this branch of the iron business alone. In these circumstances, and in view of the fact that there is a growing demand for iron for other purposes, such as iron steamboats, locomotives, machinery, &c., it seems probable that a large demand for iron must continue for some time to come. And here the question naturally arises, whence its resources for this increased supply? Observe its past history. During the last 100 years the iron mines of Great Britain have yielded thus:—

1740	*Tons* 17,000	59 *furnaces.*
1788	68,000	85 "
1827	690,000	284 "
1839	950,000	360 "
1845	1,550,000	550 "

From which it would appear that, unless the mines be exhaustible, there will be no lack of supply, the working power being so elastic and commanding. We believe it has been ascertained that there is not any risk of the ironstone failing in England; and as Scotland has unexplored fields of immense extent, the "golden age of iron" may be looked upon as not yet far advanced in its cycle of developement. As regards the prospects of increased demand from America, doubtless the repeal of the corn-laws, and the operation of the new tariff, will be in favor of the iron trade. Up to the last four years we have exported to the United States nearly half our iron products; but latterly our prices have been too high for exportation, either to America or the continent. Indeed the balance—when we take into account the supplies obtained by Belgium from Pittsburg, and other iron districts in the States—has been against England in this respect; and although the facility of exchanging iron for food will now be great, those ironmasters who are best acquainted with the history of mining operations in the states, are not at all sanguine as to their future prospects in that market. Upon the whole, unless the progress of railway-making be materially checked, it is evident that, for some years to come, there will be a steady and large demand for iron.

BILLS FOR RAIL-ROADS BEFORE THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

A return called for by Mr. Gibson Craig, was issued on Thursday, of all private bills applied for during the present session, for which a subscription contract has been deposited in the Private Bill Office, with their respective estimates, capital stock, and sums authorised to be borrowed. A summary of the document shows, that out of a total of 265,842,386*l.*, for investment in British enterprise, railways claim a lion's share of 259,329,450*l.*; while the ferries, docks, piers, and harbours, principally projected to furnish marine communications for these iron outlets, make a demand of rather more than 5,000,000*l.*:—

Description of Bills.	*Estimated Expense.*	*Capital Stock.*	*Authorized to Borrow.*
Railways	£259,329,450	£254,050,760	£90,472,095
Navigations and canals	377,950	170,000	226,600
Waterworks	1,786,251	1,950,600	901,433
Ferries and docks	3,427,183	1,650,000	2,033,000
Piers and harbours	531,627	272,000	294,933
Bridges	130,000	——	60,000
Roads	22,367	——	——
Miscellaneous	237,558	277,500	282,500
Total	£265,842,386	£258,370,860	£94,270,561

PROGRESS OF IRON SHIP-BUILDING.

On Wednesday last, two launches took place from Messrs. Ditchburn's yard, at Blackwall, which attracted numerous visitors. The first vessel liberated was the *Erin-go-bragh*, belonging to the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, and is every way creditable to that company's splendid fleet—she is built of iron, and is to have 200-horse power engines, by Maudslay; her dimensions are 201 ft. 6 in. between the perpendiculars; keel for tonnage, 184 ft.; breadth for do., 28 ft. 9 in.; depth in hold, 17 ft. 4 in.; and burthen, 810 tons.—The *Recruit* was then launched; she is one of the experimental brigs which the Lords of the Admiralty have ordered to be built by private firms, and is the first iron vessel of war ever built in this country, or probably in the world. The lady of Mr. Ditchburn named her—she carries 12 guns; is 113 ft. between perpendiculars; keel for tonnage, 94 ft. 10 in.; breadth for do., 30 ft. 3 in.; depth in hold, 14 ft. 2 in.; and burthen, 449 tons.—On Saturday last, an experimental trip was made with the new iron steam-ship *Windsor;* she started from St. George's Pier, Liverpool, and made the *North* light-ship (15¾ miles) in 54 minutes; and on her return, she left the Bell buoy, and arrived at the pier (13 miles) in 1 hour and 9 minutes, against the tide—she is intended to ply between Liverpool and Belfast; her length over all, is 224 ft.; keel, 190 ft.; breadth, 28 ft.; depth of hold, 16 ft.; tonnage, 764 tons; engines, 350-horse power.

VALUE OF THE MINES OF CORNWALL.

The mines of the county of Cornwall employ one-fourth part of the entire population, and produce the larger half of all the metals raised in the kingdom; the wages paid from the copper mines alone exceed 500,000*l.* annually, and the mineral produce is of the yearly value of 1,500,000*l.* The steam-engines employed at the various mines consume annually 80,000 tons of coal. Mr. Treffry, the largest single mine owner in the county, in his extensive mining and other works, has 7000 persons receiving from his employment their entire support.

TELEGRAPHIC COMMUNICATION BETWEEN FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

It was stated some time ago that a submarine telegraph was to be laid down across the English Channel, by which an instantaneous communication could be made from coast to coast. The Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, with a view of testing the practicability of this undertaking, have been pleased to approve of the projectors laying down a sub-marine telegraph across the harbour of Portsmouth, from the house of the admiral in the dock-yard to the railway terminus at Gasport. In a few days after the experiment has been successfully tested at Portsmouth, the sub-marine telegraph will be laid down across the Straits of Dover, under the sanction of both English and French Governments.

ENGLISH COAL STATISTICS FOR 1844 AND 1845.

We have before us the Parliamentary return of the quantities of coal, culm and cinders, shipped at the several ports of England, Ireland and Scotland, coastways, to other ports of the United Kingdom, in 1844 and 1845; the quantities and declared value of coal, &c., exported to foreign countries and to British settlements abroad, in 1844 and 1845; the amount of duties received thereon, and the quantity brought coastways into the port of London in 1844 and 1845. The total quantity shipped coastways to other parts in the United Kingdom, was, in 1844—coals, 7,017,113 tons; cinders, 36,678 tons; culm, 324,071 tons—in all, 7,377,862 tons: in 1845—coal, 8,338,907; cinders, 52,196 tons; culm, 332,365 tons—total, 8,723,468 tons; being an increase in favor of the latter year of 1,345,606 tons. The total quantities exported to foreign countries and British settlements abroad, in 1844, were—large coal, 1,289,957 tons; small, 408,434 tons; cinders, 49,389 tons; culm, 6,391 tons—total, 1,754,171 tons; in value, £672,056: and in 1845—large, 1,996,731 tons; small, 446,009 tons; cinders, 84,556 tons; culm, 3,986 tons—together, 2,531,282 tons; in value, £973,635—being an increase, in 1845, of 777,111 tons, and in money, of £301,579. Of the amount thus exported, France received 647,967 tons, value £220,879; Germany, 227,539 tons, value £69,584; Prussia, 184,487 tons, value £54,650; Denmark, 168,158 tons, value £52,214; Russia, 150,422 tons, value £53,105; Holland, 139,288 tons, value £47,446; British West Indies, 102,399 tons, value £60,816; Spain and the Canaries, 101,336 tons, value £50,304; Italy, 96,338 tons, value £42,052; East Indies and Ceylon, 85,689 tons, value £52,687; British North America, 79,359 tons, value £33,316; United States, 58,381 tons, value £31,930; Turkey and Greece, 56,766 tons, value £24,434; Channel Islands, 55,588 tons, value £22,033; Portugal, Azores and Madeira, 32,031 tons, value £17,714; and the Brazils, 30,038 tons, value £13,732. Of the quantity exported, there were shipped from Newcastle, 1,069,737 tons; Sunderland, 428,400; Hartlepool, 158,225; Newport, 149,890; Stockton, 128,626; Liverpool, 123,456; London, 78,198; Borrowstownness, 73,656; Swansea, 43,139; Hull, 42,789; Irvine, 35,403; Cardiff, 33,096; Glasgow, 29,376; Alloa, 25,036; Greenock, 23,318; and Kirkaldy, 20,779 tons. The amount of duty paid on the total amount of coals, &c., exported in the year 1845, was £17,272, on 2,531,282 tons. The quantity brought coastways into the port of London, was, in 1844, 2,490,910 tons; by inland navigation and land carriage, 72,256—together, 2,536,166 tons; and in 1845, coastways, 3,392,512 tons, by inland navigation and land carriage, 68,687 tons—together, 3,461,199 tons,—being an increase over 1844 of 198,033 tons.

LIST OF BLAST-FURNACES IN ALL SCOTLAND—JUNE, 1846.

[FROM OUR CORRESPONDENT.]

County.	Name.	Total.	In Blast.	Out of Blast.
Lanark	Gartsherrie	16	15	1
"	Summerlee	6	5	1
"	Langloan	6	5	1
"	Dundyvan	9	8	1
"	Calder	8	5	3
"	Carnbroe	6	3	3
"	Monkland	9	8	1
"	Omoa	3	2	1
"	Shotts	4	3	1
"	Castlehill	2	2	0
"	Coltness	6	5	1
"	Clyde	7	5	2
"	Govan	6	5	1
Dumbarton	Garscube	2	2	0
Argyll	Bunaw	1	1	0
Ayr	Blair	6	3	3
"	Glengarnock	7	5	2
"	*Eglinton	3	0	3
"	*Lugar	4	2	2
"	Muirkirk	4	2	2
Fife	Devon	3	2	1
"	*Forth	4	0	4
Stirling	Carron	4	3	1
Linlithgow	*Kinniel	4	4	[illegible]
	Total	130	95	[illegible]

New works are proposed to be erected at Lesmahagow and Wilsontown, Lanarkshire; Kilmarnock, Dalmellington, Kilwinning, and Beith, Ayrshire; also, at Lochgelly, Fifeshire.

The following new malleable iron works in Scotland, are expected to be in full operation this autumn, and to produce 500 tons, at each work, of finished iron per week—viz. the West of Scotland Malleable Iron Company, at Holytown, Lanarkshire; and the Glasgow Iron Company, at Glasgow, Lanarkshire.

The furnaces in blast produce, on an average, (*taking all the works together,*) about 110 tons each per week, *not more.*—[*Glasgow, July* 1.

THE IRON TRADE IN FRANCE.

The present favorable change in the weather for the last week, from sultry to a moderate temperature, and the genial rains which have fallen, have had a very beneficial effect in the mining districts, as several forgemasters had been obliged to suspend the blasting of their furnaces, the men not being able to support the intense heat, which temporarily caused a decrease in the production of cast-iron, the price of which at St. Dizier is still maintained firm, at 7*l.* 12s. 6d. the 1000 kil. (or 17 cwts. 3 qrs. English;) wrought-iron (*fers battus*) from 14*l.* 16s. to 15*l.* 12s. 6d. per 1000 kil., at which prices numerous orders have been given; sheet and hearth-iron is steady at 9*l.* 16s., and a few sales made, as the stock in hand is small, and the ironmasters are reluctant to give this high price. A great deal is doing in the manufacture of ornamental iron, and water and gas pipes, which at present is giving an active employment. On the whole, the iron trade is improving, and some extensive demands are expected for railway and other purposes, when the generality of the furnaces are in full blast.

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* These are all new works.

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METAL.

London, July 2, 1845.

	£	s.	£	s.	d.
Iron—Bar *a*. Wales..ton	0	0—	8	0	0
" London....	0	0—	9	0	0
Nail rods "	0	0—	10	0	0
Hoop (Staf.)	11	0—	11	5	0
Sheet " " ..	0	0—	12	5	0
Bars " " ..	10	10—	11	0	0
Rails, average...	9	5—	9	10	0
Welsh cold blast foundry pig	4	5—	5	0	0
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde	3	6	3	8	0
Russian CCND *c*..	0	0—	——		
" PSI.....	0	0—	——		
" Gourieff..	14	5—	14	10	0
" Archangel	0	0—	13	12	6
Swedish *d*, on the spot.	0	0—	11	10	0
" Steel, fagt. .	0	0—	15	5	0
" " kegs *e*	14	5—	14	10	0
Copper—Tile *f*........	0	0—	92	0	0
Tough cake......	0	0—	93	0	0
Best selected.....	0	0—	96	0	0

	£	s.	£	s.	d.
Copper—Ordin. sheets lb	0	0—	0	0	10½
" bottoms.	0	0—	0	0	11½
Tin—Com. blocks *g*. cwt	0	0—	4	12	0
" bars	0	0—	4	13	6
Refined	0	0—	4	15	0
Straits *h*.........	4	11—	4	12	0
Banca	4	13—	4	14	0
Tin Plates—Ch. IC *i*, box	1	9—	1	11	0
" IX. ...	1	15—	1	17	0
Coke, IC........	1	4 6—	1	5	0
" IX....	1	10 6—	1	11	0
Lead—Sheet *k*.......ton	19	15—	20	0	0
Pig, refined......	0	0—	21	0	0
" common	0	0—	19	0	0
" Spanish, in bd	18	0—	18	5	0
" American....	0	0—	——		
Spelter—(Cake) *l*	0	0—	18	10	0
Zinc—(Sheet) *m* export*	28	0—	30	0	0
Quicksilver, *n*.........lb	0	0—	0	4	6
Refined Metal.......ton	4	15—	5	0	0

a Discount 2½ per cent. *b* Net cash. *c* Discount 2½ per cent. *d* Ditto. *e* In kegs ½ and ⅝-inch. *f* Discount 3 per cent. *g* Ditto 2½ per cent. *h* Net cash. in b[illegible] *i* Discount 3 per cent. *k* Ditto 2½ per cent. *l* Net Cash. m[illegible]ount 1½ per cent. *n* Discount 1¼ per cent. * For home use it is 32*l*. per ton.

[*From our Correspondent.*]

Iron.—Staffordshire has been very firm during the past month at our quotations of 2d ult. Welsh is a shade lower, but 8*l*. for bars, at the shipping ports, may be considered as the lowest price. Scotch pig having declined 3s. or 4s., enabled parties to place many orders which had been some time on the market, and large sales were made at about 67s. 6d. for mixed Nos. On the 29th ult., 30,000 tons of railway bars, at 9*l*. 10s., and 9,000 tons of chairs, at 7*l*., were sold by three Staffordshire houses to a railway company in their vicinity. Swedish iron and steel continue very dull: a few sales of the former article were made last month, but we do not know of any transactions in the latter.

Copper remains at previous quotations of *Mining Journal*, with a dull demand.

Tin.—It will be seen that this metal has much advanced since our last—viz. English, 5s., and foreign, 10s. per cwt. On the 17th ult. the 60,000 slabs of Banca offered for sale at Rotterdam were purchased by the same party who bought last year, at 55½ florins—one moiety of which were immediately resold at about 59 florins: this had the effect of raising the prices of Banca and Straits in this market 4s. to 5s. per cwt.; and on the 22d inst. to within 2s. to 3s. of the prices we now quote. At a public sale yesterday, 198 slabs of Banca were sold at 92s., and 2,094 slabs of Straits at 90s. per cwt.

Tin Plates are firm at quotations, with a fair demand.

Lead is rather dull, but the same prices rule now as on the 2d ult.

Spelter has been singularly inactive lately, and we have no particular report to give of this article, which is held at 18*l*. 7s. 6d. to 18*l*. 10s. The stock on the 30th ult. was 2,950 tons.

[*Communicated by Messrs. Whitcomb and Barton, Old Broad-street.*]

In English iron the demand for exportation is still very limited, but prices remain firm. Extensive sales of Scotch pig-iron (3-5ths No. 1, and 2-5ths No. 3) have been made this week at 66s. cash in a month; and also for bill at three months, without interest. Welsh and Staffordshire pig-iron are in rather more request; and it is expected, in consequence of the very large orders which have been given, and are now in the market, for rails, that higher prices must prevail. Foreign iron dull of sale.—English copper, as also English lead, firm, but in limited demand.—In other metals no alteration.

MONTHLY LIST OF PATENTS.

A List of Patents issued from the 21st of June to the 20th July, 1846, inclusive, viz:

To William Shaw, of Albany, N. Y., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Royal E. House, of New-York city, for improvement in Stop Cocks for filtering, (assigned to William Ballard) Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Russell Tomlinson, of Jackson, Mich., for improvement in Straw Carriers. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Daniel Cary, of Clarkson, N. Y., for improvement in the Horse Power. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Conrad Kile, of Nashville, Ohio, for improvement in Tailors' Measures. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To James Cox, of Brush Valley, Pa., for improvement in Fire Escapes. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Samuel Pierce, of Peekskill, N. Y., for improvement in Stoves. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To George E. Waring, of Stamford, Conn., and Richard E. Peterson, of New-York city, administrators of Alexander S. Wolcott, deceased, for improvement in Kitchen Ranges. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Damon A. and Smith Church, of Friendship, N. Y., for improvement in Screens for grain, &c. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Henry D. and Jacob McK. Fouse, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in Stoves. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To John Durant, of New-York city, for improvement in Pencil Cases, (assigned to A. G. Bagley.) Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Henry S. Davis, of Westernville, N. Y., for improvement in Boot Crimps. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Amaria Pierce, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Apparatus for Generating Gas. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Matthew Vassar, of Poughkeepsie, N. Y., for improvement in Vent Plugs. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Warren Dutcher, of Bennington, Vt., for improvement in Looms. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To James S. Glover, of Ipswich, Mass., for improvement in Warp Net Fabrics, (assigned to Geo. W. Heard.) Patented 27th June, 1846.

To John McMullen, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in Netting Machines. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Harvey H. May, of Galesburgh, Ill., for improvement in Machinery for Swedgingmold Boards, &c., for ploughs. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Gilbert D. Jones, of New-York city, for improvement in Packing and Pressing Spices. Patented 27th June, 1846.

To Agustus Girard, of Mobile, Ala., for improvement in Plumb Levels. Patented 2d July, 1846.

To Luther Philleo, of Utica, N. Y., for improvement in Piano [illegible]es. Patented 2d July, 1846.

To Thomas W. Harvey, of New-York city, for improvement in Machinery for Nicking Screw Heads. Patented 2d July, 1846.

To George M. Norton, of Rochester, N. Y., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 2d July, 1846.

To William Germar, of Easton, Pa., for improvement in Tanning. Patented 2d July, 1846.

To Joseph G. and Jonas H. Kendall, of Leominster, Mass., for improvement in Pleaching Paper pulp. Patented 2d July, 1846.

To John Davidson, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in Lamps. Patented 2d July, 1846.

To John Simpson, of Decatur, Geo., for improvement in Band Pulleys. Patented 7th July, 1846.

To Chapman Warner, of Louisville, Ky., for improvement in Pumps for Raising Water. Patented 7th July, 1846.

To Lauriston R. Livingston, John J. Roggen and Calvin Adams, of Pittsburgh, Pa., for improvement in Shanks of Door Knobs. Patented 7th July, 1846.

To T. F. Strong, a citizen of the United States, in London, England, for improvement in Lamps. Patented 7th July, 1846.

To John Barker, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in Air Heating Furnaces. Patented 7th July, 1846.

To Jonathan Russell, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Boot Trees. Patented 7th July, 1846.

To William H. Stevens, of Salem, Ill., for improvement in Grain Cleaners. Patented 7th July, 1846.

To Ezra L. Miller, of Brooklyn, N. Y., for improvement in Hot Water Apparatus for Warming Buildings. Patented 7th July, 1846.

To Ezra L. Miller, of Brooklyn, N. Y., for improvement in Boiler Furnace. Patented 7th July, 1846.

To William Ballard, of New-York city, for improvement in Jack Screw. Patented 7th July, 1846.

To Dan Pease, jr., of Floyd, N. Y., for improvement in Machines for Cleaning Buckwheat. Patented 14th July, 1846

To William March, of Sand Bank, N. Y., for improvement in Water Wheels. Patented 14th July, 1846.

To W. E. Woodbridge, of New-York city, for improvement in Locks for Doors, &c. Patented 14th July, 1846.

To William S. Burch, of Washington, D. C., for improvement in Chimney Caps. Patented 14th July, 1846.

To Benjamin M. Van Der Veer, of Clyde, N. Y., for improvement in Teaching Arithmetic. Patented 14th July, 1846.

To Samuel Lichtenthæler, of Litiz, Pa., for improvement in Window-Blind Fastenings, &c. Patented 14th July, 1846.

To Jedediah Holcomb, of Brandon, Vt., for improvement in Nail Machinery. Patented 14th July, 1846.

To David M. Smith, of Springfield, Vt., for improvement in Locks for Doors, &c. Patented 14th July, 1846.

To Jesse Fitzgerald, of New-York city, for improvement in Thrashing Machines. Patented 14th July, 1846.

To Eleazer D. Loveland, of New-York city, for improvement in Hot Air Stoves. Patented 14th July, 1846.

To John McCully, of Salem, Mass., for improvement in Spinning Hemp. Patented 14th July, 1846.

To Theodore F. Strong, of New-York city, for improvement in Lamps. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To John L. Whetstone, of Cincinnati, Ohio, for improvement in Door Locks. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To Jacob Shaw, Hinkley, Ohio, for improvement in Door Springs. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To M. W. Obenchain, of Springfield, Ohio, for improvement in Carding Machines. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To Russell Wildman, of Hartford, Ct., for improvement in Machinery for Forming Hat Bodies. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To William Sherwood, of Ridgefield, Ct., for improvement in Carpet Looms. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To Richard Garsed, of Frankford, Pa., for improvement in Operating Treadle Cams in Looms for Tweeling. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To James Ives, of Hamden, Ct., for improvement in Locks for Carriage Doors. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To Jacob Peebles, of Concordia, La., for improvement in Brick Cisterns. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To Jacob Shermer, of New Valley, Md., for improvement in Winnowing Machines. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To George Levan, of Gap, Pa., for improvement in Doubling and Twisting and Reeling. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To Joseph Stevens, of Northumberland, N. Y., for improvement in Fences. Patented 20th of July, 1846.

To James Boss, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Ever-Pointed Pencils. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To Richard C. Holmes and Jonathan J. Springer, of Cape May C. H., N. J., for improvement in Machinery for Steering vessels. Patented 20th July, 1846.

To Daniel Hoats, of Mifflingburgh, Pa., for improvement in Threshing

Machines. Patented 20th July, 1846.

ADDITIONAL IMPROVEMENTS.

To Nathan Post, of Madrid, N. Y., for improvement in Horse Hames. Patented 14th July, 1846.

DESIGNS.

To John F. Rathbone, of Albany, N. Y., for Design for Box Stove. Patented 10th July, 1846.

To John F. Rathbone, of Albany, N. Y., for Design for Air Tight Stoves. Patented 10th July, 1846.

To Adam Hampton, of New-York city, for Design for Parlor Grate. Patented 10th July, 1846.

To John E. Thomas, of Albany, N. Y., for Design for Air Tight Cooking Stoves, (assigned to John F. Rathbone.) Patented 10th July, 1846.

To John F. Rathbone, of Albany, N. Y., for Design for Cooking Stove. Patented 10th July, 1846.

To John Morrison, of Troy, N. Y., for Design for Cooking Stoves. Patented 10th July, 1846.

To Robert Barber and Michael Hoffman, of Bridgeton, N. J., for Design for Stoves. Patented 10th July, 1846.

To L. Gravline, of Albany, N. Y., for Design for Cooking Stoves, (assigned to Jesse C. Potts.) Patented 10th July, 1846.

To William Shaw, of Albany, N. Y., for Design for Stoves, (assigned to John N. Wilder, Wm. E. Bleecker and Samuel D. Vose.) Patented 10th July, 1846.

To Michael Gibney, of New-York city, for Design for Spoons, Forks, &c. Patented 10th July, 1846.

To Nathaniel Batchelor and Henry Biggins, of New-York city, for Design for Clock Frames, (assigned to Nathaniel Batchelor, by said Henry Biggins.) Patented 10th July, 1846.

SPEECHES OF MEMBERS OF CONGRESS.

We have received a number of speeches on the great question of the Tariff, delivered both in the House and in the Senate, with a truthfulness and an ability which has never been surpassed, if it have been ever equalled, and have no words in which sufficiently to express our deep regret that the nature of our work forbids our recording them, one and all, as they were delivered.

To do so, would be to give our sanction and aid to the dissemination of a fund of facts, statistics, and arguments that would show who are the real friends of the American citizen, let his employment be what it may. Our regret at our inability to do what would thus aid the real cause of the country, is somewhat mollified, from the fact, that the daily press will give them a wide circulation.

There are, however, in these speeches, as we have said, facts and statistics of immense value; and they should be, and *shall be* placed on record. It will be alike our pride and our pleasure to do this as soon as possible, and to show who are the noble spirits that have stood forward in favor of their country in this her trying hour. We shall also be much obliged to any others who may not have done so, if they will forward to us *their* speeches, that we may not unknowingly withhold from them the high sense we entertain, of one and all, who have arrayed themselves to resist the evil which will inevitably follow from the attempt to execute the new Tariff, on the 1st of December next, but which we have no hesitation in declaring to be an utter impossibility from the frauds which will be practiced under it.

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

By the arrivals of the steamers Cambria and Great Britain we are placed in possession of our files and periodicals of the month of July.

SCIENTIFIC.

The Edinburgh Philosophical Magazine, conducted by Brewster, has an able paper by Mr. Strickland, which was read before the Ashmolean Society of Oxford, on the subject of the satellitary nature of shooting stars and aerolites. He controverts, with force, some of the opinions of Humboldt and others, on the nature of these bodies. The conclusion to which the author arrives is, that they are satellites, having all their elements so adjusted as to insure a perpetual revolution round the earth, into whose atmosphere they occasionally dip, and then undergo a momentary ignition. We presume this theory will attract the attention of our New-Haven savans.

In the proceedings of the Royal Astronomical Society we find a very elaborate account of the discovery of the new planet Astrea; for which discovery the world is indebted to Mr. Hencke. And this was by no means accidental; it was the reward of a long and well-directed research under the conviction of the truth of a certain general philosophical law.

It was observed by some astronomers, that if there was any rule by which the primary planets were placed at certain distances from the sun, then there was a defect and a failure in the system at one particular distance. In 1800 a body of learned astronomers agreed to adopt this as the basis of new researches, and their telescopes were turned to the place where new planets ought to be found. We had the discovery of Ceres, by Piazzi, in 1801; Pallas, in 1802, by Olbers; Juno, by Harding, in 1804; Vesta, by Olbers, in 1807, and Uranus, subsequently, by Sir William Herschel. This was a proud triumph for Astronomy. With similar views, Mr. Hencke, of Driessen, in Prussia, having been at the time attached to the post-office service, has devoted fifteen years of his past life to an examination of that portion of the heavens where he expected to find the stranger. On the 8th of December last, he found, directly between two stars of the 9.10th, marked on the Berlin maps, a star of the ninth magnitude, which was not on the map, and is now known as Astrea. Its time of revolution is not fully determined, but it is nearly ascertained to be about five times longer than that of our Earth.

In Jameson's Quarterly Journal we find an article from the pen of Arago, discussing the question whether, in the present state of our knowledge, it is possible to foretell what weather it will be at a given place and time, and when we may expect to be able to solve this problem. It seems that Arago wished to determine the state of the weather a year in advance, by means of the relations of the moon and of the comets, but he came to the conclusion that their influences were insensible. In this paper, M. Arago, complaining of the publication of false and ridiculous predictions which have been attributed to him, and which he repudiates, comes to this result, which we announce as an act of justice to this great man: "Whatever may be the progress of the sciences, never will observers, who are trustworthy or careful of their reputation, venture to foretell the state of the weather." He proceeds first to consider through what limits the mean temperatures of years and months vary in our climates. The meteorological state of a place is much less variable than they generally suppose it to be who trust to personal sensations, vague impressions and recollections, and the condition of crops.

Facts are stated to support this proposition, and it is in accordance with our own experience. With regard to the extreme temperatures of each month, with the mean or normal temperatures of all the rest, there are greater variations. For example, the month of January is sometimes as temperate as the *mean* of the month of March, and so on.

In considering the disturbing causes of terrestrial temperature which cannot be foreseen, the writer considers the effects produced on continental atmospheres, by atmospheres of the sea carried eastwardly by the west winds. He attributes great influence on climate, to the ice fields of the Arctic Pole, and to the icebergs which cover immense spaces, and descend, without melting, to pretty low latitudes; also, to the changes in the diaphaneity of the sea, in other words, to the heat the sea may retain when its waters cease to be transparent from any cause, and become opaque or turgid. This may be owing to medusæ, animalculæ, and other causes. The sea being thus, in certain localities, more heated than in others, who can tell, says Arago, how far thermic variation may not be referred to this cause.

He presents another curious idea. If the atmosphere was immobile and perfectly clear, and the soil everywhere equally absorbing, emissive and retentive, the effect of solar action throughout the year, in every determined parallel, might be ascertained. But as these circumstances are not uniform, and there are numerous disturbing causes, we have not yet arrived at the possession of such exact and comparable meteorological observations as will enable us to give due importance to localities. In proof of this we are informed of a very remarkable fact, that in Siberia there is an entire district where the sky is constantly clear, and not a particle of snow ever falls. So, too, the spots on the sun producing obscurations of large portions of its rays; volcanoes, clouds of dust, sometimes 120 leagues in extent, all may have their influence. The periodical winds in the valleys of mountainous regions, and the changes produced by the cutting down or permanence of forests, are all to be taken into account.

In our own country our lakes exert an influence, and a powerful one. Electricity is another disturbing cause of temperature. Arago inquires whether the labors of man may not disturb the electric state of a whole country. Thus clearing the wood from a mountain, is equivalent to the destruction of so many conductors of lightning. The accumulation of electricity being indispensable to the formation of hail, it is found, says Arago, that wooded provinces, in many parts of Europe, escape hail-storms, while in the continental states of the King of Sardinia, in eight years the losses from these causes were forty-six millions of francs. It is asserted by some, that the flame and smoke from the chimneys of furnaces deprive the atmosphere of electricity for leagues around. In Italy, it is maintained, that as rice-fields multiply, the annual quantity of rain increases. The direct action of the air on vegetation is also likely to be a disturbing cause. This interesting paper of Arago, which, by carefully reading and analyzing, we are enabled to present in this brief form, will be found worthy of the attention of our naturalists. We would here remark, that while we fully believe no certain predictions with regard to the weather can be made, we have known persons, who have studied and observed scientifically for years, its variations, and have kept thermometrical and other tables—that have been able, with great accuracy, to state in the morning, what would be the character of the weather through the day. The localities where their observations were made, presented certain symptoms of coming changes, which were quite reliable. For example, the condition of the clouds near a mountain, ascending or descending, the elasticity or non-elasticity of the atmosphere, the rapidity with which a cloud increases or disperses visibly to the eye, the form of the clouds, and the direction of the wind, form a pretty good guide to the local meteorologist.

In this journal we find a curious article by Agassiz, on the Ichthyological Fossil Fauna of the old red sand-stone, in which he contends that these fossils do not confirm the theory of a continuous series of animals, setting out with the zoophytes, and terminating in man, passing through the intermediate types of radiata, mollusca, articulata, and vertebrata. On the contrary, he asserts there have been independent and *uncontinuous* creations. Serial classifications, says he, should be renounced. We regret we have not room to place his learned article before our readers in a more extended form.

We have in the same number Horner's Geological Address before a society in London, one portion of which, on the formation of coal, is very elaborate and interesting.

We find an interesting and novel paper by Captain Rozet, communicated to the French Academy of Science, on the subject of the surface of the moon, which concludes with the opinion, that the moon has been in a state of fusion, and gradually cooled. That the annular ridges seen on its surface, have been occasioned by whirlpools or circular movements during the process of consolidation; that no salutary liquid in any considerable quantity ever existed in the moon; and that without such liquids no organized beings could exist.

Mr. Stuart communicates a valuable paper on the Turbine Water-Wheel, and states that the use of one in his factory on the river Leven, drives 3,112 spindles; 500 more than with the same head of water he was formerly able to do with two breast-wheels. In his communication may be found a report on the character, qualities, power, and cheapness of the wheel, which, from its length, we are unable to publish.

The ethnologists will find a feast in a recent article by Dr. Scouler, on the Indian tribes inhabiting the Northwest Coast of America.

Many other valuable papers, though not of general interest, are to be found in this number.

Among the patents recently granted, we find some apparently novel, for the treatment of ores.

The Vulcanized India Rubber, is now claimed by Charles McIntosh

& Co., as their patented article. It is used as a substitute for the blanket in calico-printing, as springs for rail-way carriages, and as felt, corrugated, to place between the rails and chairs of rail-ways. A similar patented substance is now the subject of a warm controversy between two great manufacturing-houses in this city, and it is impossible as yet to foresee the result.

Messrs. Hammond & Souter have invented a pneumatic tilt-hammer and pile-driver, of course worked by air. It is described as a veritable affair; but it seems to us that if the fall of a hammer can be so governed, as to produce a power from an air-reservoir, to lift it up again to its place, we have discovered perpetual motion!

The controversy with regard to the Screw-propeller continues to be waged warmly in England. The two last trips of the Great-Britain will certainly favor the friends of the screw, in their calculations of its efficiency.

Two or three drops of Kreosote, on a lump of sugar, are said to be an infallible preventive to sea-sickness. It is a tonic and sedative remedy.

A method of reducing silver ores without the use of quicksilver, invented by a German of the name of Tiervogel, has been successfully introduced at the Mexican mines.

Mr. Oxley has invented what he terms a buoyant, or self-adjusting paddle-wheel; the principle of which, as we have ascertained by reading eight columns of description, is, that the buckets or paddles slide up and down the spokes or arms of the wheel as the water in which they turn sustains them near its level.

A new water-crane has been invented for railway stations.

The July number of the Nautical Magazine contains some useful remarks on the navigation of the Gulf of Mexico, which our naval captains might read with advantage.

We learn that the manufacture of salt, in Sardinia, is to be extensively followed up by exportation. The government loads the vessels taking it away.

Dr. Alexander, of Scotland, after an interesting botanical tour through Lower Styria, having discovered fifteen new species of plants during his observations.

The Natural History of Java is also undergoing a deliberate examination, by a celebrated Dutch physician, Junghuhn.

An Academy of Arts and Sciences is to be immediately established in Vienna, under the patronage of the Emperor.

A beautiful specimen of a new species of the Plesiosaurus has been found in the Bristol lias. It is sixteen feet and three inches in length.

Mr. Lyell, in commenting upon foot-marks in the coal fields of Pennsylvania, referred usually to mammalia and birds, as well as reptiles, has expressed rather an extraordinary opinion, when he says he believes these impressions are "only artificial sculptures, by the Indians." He, however, admits the received theory to be correct so far as it relates to the distinct carboniferous rocks of Pennsylvania.

We learn that there is a village in the Deccan of which every inhabitant is engaged in paper making.

The effluvium proceeding from the gratings of the street sewers is said to be a source of much ill health in cities, and the subject is attracting the attention of the British Institute of Architects.

We have thus enumerated all the leading features of the scientific European world since our last. There is nothing very startling, nothing very new. Between the resounding and noise of new experiments and discoveries, the learned men and the learned societies of Europe keep diligently at work, observing, comparing, analysing and deducing.

It is indeed a pleasing contemplation that so many thousands of intellects, of the highest order, are constantly working for the human race, for those who will not think, and who receive constant additions to their prosperity from the unreverenced hand of the wise and the learned. Science has entered their dwellings with almost an officious kindness, making the kitchen a source of health and nourishment; the bed-room, a place of repose and health; the parlors, scenes of comfort, and mental and social happiness; the shop, the storehouse of wealth; the world around them, full of life—attractive and intelligible.

We trust the day is not far distant when American scholars and students will be felt and known as a class of citizens worthy of the public esteem and veneration.

FINE ARTS.

The discovery of the Talbotype, or art of sun-picturing, as it may be termed, is hailed as an admirable auxiliary to painters and travellers.

It is said that the modern school of German art, has assumed a character for exalted sentiment, which is making a profound sensation in the other schools of Europe. There is a very fine paper in the Art Union for July, which gives the history of its progress, and the works and position of the leading German artists of our day. We should like to see the facts it contains, placed before the public in a popular form. They would have their influence here. We think that our countryman, Leutze, has caught some of the spirit of the German school during his residence on the continent.

We are again in possession of drawings of works in iron, of the most useful descriptions and beautiful forms. Grates, vases, hat-stands, garden-seats, and many other things, are now made of iron, and are really very elegant. There has been some cause to fear, however, that American industry is about to receive a check in its onward career, which will not only forbid the attempt at the ornamental, but destroy and break down the useful also.

A marble statue of Southey, by Lough, has been completed, and much admired.

D. Mendelsohn has been composing a religious piece of music, called his "Lauda Sion," which is said to be a master-piece, and yet so written that, while it answers sublimely the design for which it was written, there is not a movement in it which may not be turned to secular purposes.

Mr. Fry, the American composer, now in Europe, is regarded with interest by the musical world.

A monster Concert has come off in Germany, consisting of 2,300 instrumental and vocal performers. It was held at Cologne. The Government allowed the musicians to travel free on the rail-roads.

We find Miss Cushman maintaining her high position in the drama, and seeming to excel in every character she undertakes.

We find infinite details of pictures, and other works of art, but to the American reader, accustomed to our glances, their minuteness would be unpleasant, and their utility appear questionable.

LITERARY.

The great Orientalist Ochoa, who recently made an excursion to Central Asia, by authority of the French Government, after bringing back an immense number of valuable MSS., which he was engaged in translating, has recently died in Paris.

Toppfer, a Swiss writer of popular novels, is dead.

A new weekly newspaper is announced, by Douglass Jerrold; and the following works are just published and advertised:

Echoes from the Backwoods. By Capt. Levinge.

Mrs. Maberley's Leontine.

A Visit to the French in Algiers. By the Count St. Marie.

Mexico and the United States.

Murdoch's Family Tour in France and Italy.

A Comic History of England—in parts.

Typee, by our countryman Melville, continues to be much praised and admired abroad. It is a remarkable production, and will always be admired. We understand that the author, even after a second edition, has scarcely made anything by it.

Captain Marryatt has commenced a new work called Valerie.

Francis Wyse, Esq., has published a work on the United States, in which, as we infer from a notice of it in the New Monthly Magazine, it is maintained that the Democratic principle is rapidly carrying us to ruin and destruction, as a nation; that we have abandoned all moral and national obligations and responsibilities; and that our career is one of selfishness and ambition. These writers have one difficult fact to encounter, after all their predictions are uttered. Thirteen sparsely populated states, have, in a little more than half a century, become twenty-seven; three millions of people have swollen to twenty millions. We have more schools, colleges, public-buildings, and intercommunication by steam, than any other nation in the world. The Democratic principle must not be loaded down with the errors of party zealots. The great masses of our people are right, and the balance of power is better maintained in this country by the opposition of two great parties, both aiming, as they declare, at the good of the country, than in all the arrangements of kings, lords, and commons, in which the masses of the people are entirely omitted.

We have had before us for some time, which neither time nor space has permitted us to notice, "A letter to the Hon. Charles J. Ingersoll, chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs of the House of Representatives, containing some brief notices, respecting the present state, productions, trade, commerce, &c., &c., of the Comoro Islands, Abyssinia, Persia, Burmah, Cochin China, the Indian Archipelago, and Japan; and recommending that a special mission be sent by the government of the United States, to make treaties, and open and extend our commercial intercourse with those countries. By Aaron H. Palmer, Counsellor of the Supreme Court of the United States; Director of the American and Foreign Agency, New-York; Member of the New-York Historical Society; Corresponding Member of the National Institute for the Promotion of Science, Washington; and of the Imperial Brazilian Society for the advancement of the National Industry, Rio Janeiro," &c., &c. New-York, March 27, 1846.

This pamphlet contains some very useful information on the trade of the places referred to in its title. The Hon. Richard Rush considers it as containing "rare and valuable information, which it well discloses; and large and enlightened views on the policy of opening and extending commercial intercourse between the United States and those distant countries and islands, in regard to which the letter abounds in facts and statistics of so much interest."

Mr. Palmer, the author of the letter, has conducted an agency, "through which he has made known, in foreign countries, the superior skill and ability of our mechanics, machinists, and manufacturers, in some of the most prominent branches of American industry, particularly in the construction of steam-vessels, steam-engines, and machinery generally: and has, with great labor, and at heavy expense, issued and transmitted throughout the West India Islands, Mexico, Central America; all South America, Egypt, Turkey, Greece, Russia, the Maritime Countries, and Islands of Asia, Africa, Austral Asia, and Oceanica, upwards of one hundred and forty thousand large circulars, relating to such business, in English, French, Spanish, and Portuguese, and of which, about fourteen thousand contained a series of lithographed drawings of steamers, with proforma estimates of the cost of construction at this Port."

This has been the means of eliciting a great variety of orders for many objects of our industry, including a large order from the Pacha of Egypt; and for several steamers which have been constructed here for foreign account.

Through this correspondence Mr. Palmer has obtained advices, which, as he states in his pamphlet, have opened to him the objects of trade to the Comoro Islands, to Abyssinia, to Persia, to Burmah, to Cochin China, to the Indian Archipelago, and also to Japan.

We have not space for the publication of this pamphlet, but cheerfully make these remarks, for the purpose of attracting notice to the object of it, which is to awaken attention to the importance of some measures on the part of the government, by a mission, to open a trade with these distant countries.

That such a measure would be productive of great good, there can be no doubt. It is, indeed, only through such means that we can hope for the sale of our various productions, in countries too remote for private enterprise until more is known of them; of their willingness to receive us, and the kind of articles of which a cargo could be profitably composed.

If anything we could say would further such a mission, most heartily would we join in, to aid in its accomplishment.

Having some knowledge of such matters, from former visits to various places in the East, the editor, with great confidence, can state his convictions of the benefits which must result from such a mission in opening further demand for our cotton goods, such as are now sent to China; and doubtless, for very many articles proceeding from the workshops and manufactories of the country. Our mechanics and artisans of every description would, ere long, doubtless reap great advantages from the trade, which could not fail to be the result of such a mission. Ebony, ivory, various dye stuffs, drugs, and gums of all kinds, indigo, coffee, pepper, spices, tobacco, hides, horns, gold, amber, ambergris, cowries, tortoise-shell, wax, ostrich feathers, and a variety of other products of tropical climates, might be doubtless had in profitable exchange for articles of domestic export, through such a mission. England has such a trade, so valuable, as to maintain agencies, more or less, throughout all these islands and countries; and no further time should, in our opinion, be lost in taking such measures as to ensure us a share in it.

We understand Mr. Palmer's views have been submitted to some of our most enterprising merchants, in several of our large cities, and that they are greatly in favor of it.

Should it be in the way of any of our principal manufacturers to lend their aid, they would be, undoubtedly, serving themselves in forwarding Mr. Palmer's views, as set forth in this letter to Mr. Ingersoll.

MECHANICS' AND MERCHANTS' AGENCY.

Mr. Samuel Fleet, late editor of the New-York Farmer and Mechanic, we observe by a handbill advertisement which we find on our table, having retired from his former vocation, has opened an office at 34 Ann-street, which he calls the "Mechanics' and Merchants' Agency," the object of which we perceive to be, to "increase the facilities between employers and those employed."

Mr. Fleet is a firm friend to the protection of American labor, and has done good service in the cause. It gives us, therefore, great pleasure to recommend him and his new institution to all or any of our friends who may need his services in his new vocation, not doubting that many will find their advantage in so doing, from his extensive acquaintance with both employers and those employed.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

The Life of the Right Honorable George Canning. By ROBERT BELL, author of "The History of Russia," "Lives of English Poets," &c.: New-York. Harper & Brothers, Publishers, No. 82 Cliff-street, 1846.

The biography of any one who, from private life, rises to the dignity of Prime Minister of Great Britain, is necessarily of deep import, and that of Mr. Canning is more so than most others, from the peculiar nature of the times in which he guided the helm of that powerful kingdom.

We should much like to give this book an extended notice, and make from it large extracts—for it is full of records that would deeply claim the attention of our readers; but the nature of this journal, and our limited space, often precludes us from much to which we would gladly give utterance. We must, therefore, content ourselves with bearing testimony to the deep interest contained in this biography, adding the short paragraph which concludes it, in proof of what we have previously said:—

"The morning after the funeral the king conferred a peerage on his widow. Other no less gratifying marks of public estimation were showered upon his memory, abroad and at home—statues, medals, and monuments. But the most grateful of all was the profound and universal sorrow of the people. All jealousies and animosities were extinguished in the common grief, and faction herself wept upon his grave."

The Statesmen of the Commonwealth of England, with a treatise on the Popular Progress of English History. By JOHN FORSTER, of the Inner Temple. Edited by J. O. Choules. New-York: Published by Harper & Brothers, No. 82 Cliff-street.

The editor of this book well says, in his preface, that "American citizens can never be indifferent to the history of the struggles for freedom in the land of their fathers; and there is no more appropriate study for our youth than a careful examination of the men and measures of that period which constituted the transition state of England from the oppressive reigns of the Tudors and the Stuarts, to the constitutional liberty which it afterwards enjoyed"—and again, "the glories of the English nation, in the seventeenth century, are our rightful patrimony; and *Americans*, when they indulge a justifiable pride in the patriotism and statesmanship of Adams and Webster, should remember with exultation that they are the guardians of the same precious ark, once watched over by Sidney, Russell, and their compeers." We observe also in this work, the very interesting account of Sir John Eliot, and his production while in prison in the tower, called, "The Monarchy of Man," and a biography of Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Stratford, from 1593 to 1641, a table, analytical and chronological, of the statesmen of the commonwealth of England.

Shores of the Mediterranean, with Sketches of Travel. By FRANCIS SCHROEDER, Secretary of the Commodore commanding the United States squadron in that sea, 1843—'45. With engravings; in 2 vols. New-York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-street. 1846.

Every account of the classic land which borders the great inland sea, dividing the crescent from the cross, cannot fail to prove of the deepest interest to the reader; and from what we have read of these sketches we can truly say they form no exception to the rule.

Mr. Schroeder has seen much, with an eye of great enjoyment, and has described in an amusing and pleasing style, all that he saw. His book makes no pretensions to high classic attainments, and yet his memory furnishes him with many recollections, which are modestly given, and impart a deeper interest to his narrative.

We do not feel we can better do the justice, which we think his book merits, than in simply stating the fact, that what we *have* read has created a strong desire to give the whole a careful perusal.

The two volumes are beautifully illustrated by eleven handsome engravings, while the clearness of the text, and the general beauty of their typographical execution, add much to their value.

Temper and Temperament, or Varieties of Character. By Mrs. Ellis, author of "The Women of England," etc. New-York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 82 Cliff-street. 1846.

The object of the two moral tales in this book is to prove the importance of a similarity in temperament, as an important ingredient in the happiness of married life. The author appears to think, that "temper is too generally considered only, as either bad or good; while, possibly, no two individuals in the world would agree in what was really a good or a bad temper, as affected themselves; for as well might the physician endeavor to simplify his treatment of disease, by referring it only to a good or a bad constitution of body, as the moralist, judging only by degree, might pronounce upon temper, in this summary and unphilosophical manner."

To illustrate her views she has given a narrative in two tales, of ill-assorted tempers in married life, the result of which is what would be anticipated—anything but reasonable happiness.

We think the moral to be drawn from this book is good; and the stories are by no means devoid of interest.

Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading. No. LXIV., *Memoirs and Essays illustrative of Art, Literature, and Social Morals.* By Mrs. Jameson, author of "The Characteristics of Women," "Memoirs of Female Sovereigns," "Winter Studies and Summer Rambles," etc., etc. New-York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

Little need be said to excite a desire to read anything from the pen of the highly gifted writer of these memoirs and essays.

Those who have been heretofore gratified by her pleasing and instructive productions, will not fail to possess themselves of her "Description of the House of Titian;" of what she has to say of Adelaide Kemble, and the Lyrical Drama, The Xanthean Marbles,—our countryman, Washington Alston,—Woman's Mission, and Woman's Position; and on the relative social position of mothers and governesses. All which will be found in the number under notice of Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

Pictorial History of England. To be completed in about forty numbers. Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-street. 1846. Price twenty-cents per number.

Five numbers of this beautiful work have already made their appearance, commencing with an introductory view of the original population, and primitive history of the British isles. We have then, Book 1, embracing the British and Roman period, from B. C. 55 to A. D. 449. In No. 2, commences Book 2d, including the period from the arrival of the Saxons to the arrival of the Normans, from A. D. 449 to 1066, which is continued through Nos. 3 and 4. In No. 5, the period from the Norman conquest to the death of King John, A. D. 1066 to 1216, commenced.

In each period this history is divided into heads, as follows: 1st. Civil and Military Transactions. 2d. History of Religion. 3d. Constitution, Government and Laws. 4th. National Industry. 5th. Literature, Science and the Fine Arts. 6th. Manners and Customs. 7th. Condition of the People.

By thus dividing the history into periods, and separating the subjects under different heads, an opportunity presents itself, to give to great advantage the pictorial illustrations. Thus, under the 1st head, we have scenes of battles, plates of the armor of the period, &c. &c.; under the 2d head, views of the religious ceremonies of every kind; under 3d head, engraved likenesses of the kings and great men, modes of punishment, &c.; under 4th head, plates of the various processes of manufactures, of agriculture and agricultural implements, of ships, &c., &c.; under 5th head, agricultural specimens, coins, musical instruments, sculpture, drawing, engraving, &c., &c.; under the 6th head, costumes, dresses, amusements, &c., &c.

All the plates are of fine execution, and show the progress of society in a manner much more striking than is in the power of the most descriptive style of narrative. The eye is one of the senses through which the mind instantaneously receives impressions, and it is obvious, pictorial illustrations greatly aid in fixing upon the memory distinct ideas. Besides plates illustrative of the objects arranged under the respective heads, there are many beautiful engravings of castles, rural scenery, &c., which much add to the beauty and interest of the work, which, taken as a whole, is a very valuable addition to the means of acquiring an accurate knowledge of English history, which cannot fail of being eminently useful, and much sought after.

Harpers' Illustrated Shakspeare, Nos. 95 *and* 96, *concluding the Play of King John, with Notes, &c.*

Magnificent as have been the previous numbers of this inimitable edition of Shakspeare, these numbers maintain their full rank and style in every respect.

The Heroines of Shakspeare, with Letter-Press Illustrations. By Mrs. Jameson. Embracing an entire re-print of her work—"Characteristics of Women," from the last London edition. New-York: Wiley & Putnam. 1846.

This is a splendid edition of this most delightful work, too well known to need eulogy from us; though we feel an irresistible desire, just to say, that we consider it one of the most fascinating of the productions of this accomplished author. Surely no admirer of the immortal bard would be without a copy of Mrs. Jameson's Heroines of Shakspeare. The plates are splendid.

The Bible, the Koran, and the Talmud; or, Biblical Legends of the Mussulmans. Compiled from Arabic sources, and compared with Jewish Traditions. By Dr. George Weil, Librarian of the University of Heidelberg, Fellow of the Asiatic Society of Paris, &c., &c., &c. Translated from the German, with occasional Notes. New-York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 82 Cliff-street. 1846.

It appears from the preface that the leading ideas of these Mahomedan legends are contained in the Koran, and as a justification for these publications, the author goes on to state, that "our Redeemer has committed to us, in part, the propagation of his holy faith, by which alone he declares that mankind shall attain to that holiness, peace and glory, for which they have been created. The exhibition, therefore, by the stewards of the gospel, of a false religion, in which, as in the case before us, one hundred and twenty millions of our immortal race are at this moment staking their all, cannot but be important, at once to awaken within us feelings of deep and active charity for those benighted multitudes, and to furnish us with the requisite intelligence for effectually combating these grievous errors with the weapons of truth." And if these legends meet with public favor, the author proposes, in a future work, "to discuss the legendary principle at some length, and show the analogy of its practical working in the Jewish, the Mahomedan, and the Roman Catholic religion."

French Domestic Cookery, combining Elegance with Economy; Describing New Culinary Implements and Processes; the Management of the Table; Instructions for Carving; French, German, Polish, Spanish and Italian Cookery, in twelve hundred receipts; besides a variety of New Modes of Keeping and Storing Provisions, Domestic Hints, &c., Management of Wines, &c. With many Engravings. New-York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 82 Cliff-street. 1846.

The preface announces to the readers that "the present volume is an adapted translation of one of the most popular treatises on French cookery. 'La cuisiniere de la Campagne et de la Ville.' Paris, Audot, 1846."

Of course, to know this, is to be well assured of the value of the information contained in this volume, on the subject of which it treats; for the French cookery is not only the best in the world, but French cooks know more about cookery, in general, as a science, than those of any other nation, as is very well known to all who have any knowledge of the subject.

WILEY & PUTNAM'S LIBRARY OF AMERICAN BOOKS. No. 17 and 18.—*Mosses, from an old Manse.* By NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE—in two parts. New-York and London: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway; 6 Waterloo Place. Price 50 cents.

We think the author of these volumes has been somewhat unfortunate in the title he has given the work. We have seen the show cards for some little time at the doors of the bookstores, and were very much at a loss to imagine what could be the contents of a book with such a title. It certainly never occurred to us that we should find it to contain twenty-three separate tales, which are very pleasingly written, and of very good moral tendency.

The Oregon Territory; its History and Discovery; including an account of the Convention of the Escurial, also Treaties and Negotiations between the United States and Great Britain, held at various times, for the settlement of a boundary line; and an examination of the whole question in respect to facts, and the law of nations. By TRAVERS TWISS, D. C. L., F. R. S., Professor of Political Economy in the University of Oxford, and Advocate in Doctors' Commons. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: George L. Appleton & Co., 148 Chestnut-street. Cincinnati: Derby, Bradley & Co., 113 Main-street, 1846.

This book will be found to possess much interest, as a dispassionate view of the whole matter, undertaken with the laudable design of aiding in a peaceful solution of the question, so long threatening to disturb the harmony between two powerful nations, which, though happily now adjusted, should not lose its interest with the intelligent portion of the community.

Monthly Series of Useful Reading. New-York: Leavitt, Trow & Co. No. 1. *The Life of Julius Cæsar.* No. 2. *Glimpses of the Dark Ages.*

The Series of which these two small volumes are the commencement, is a re-publication of an excellent and valuable library of English works, of an elevated character, adapted to the taste and wants of that portion of the community, who have not time and opportunities for larger works on the same subject. The cheap form in which this Series is got up places it within the reach of all classes. The Life of Julius Cæsar is of so interesting a character, that it is said 12,000 copies were sold in London within the first month of its publication. The Glimpses of the Dark Ages gives a graphic sketch of the state of society in Europe from the fifth to the twelfth century.

FISHER'S

NATIONAL MAGAZINE

AND

Industrial Record.

Vol. III. NEW-YORK, SEPTEMBER, 1846. No. 4.

SKETCH OF THE COMMERCIAL HISTORY OF DENMARK.

Nothing appears worthy of credit with regard to the chronology of Denmark, prior to the year A. D. 801. Their own historians date further back, but they were not much known to others till the very early part of the ninth century. Getricus was then their king, and it was at this period they commenced their ravages of Saxony, Friesland and the Netherlands, which excited Charlemagne's just resentment, and, it is said, this caused Getricus first to fortify the frontier of his kingdom next to Germany; and about the same time they landed in Ireland, according to Sir James Ware, in his "Irish Antiquities."

In 808, the Danes and the Norwegians continued more and more to infest the British seas, and in this and the following century they proved eminently successful. In the year 845, says Voltaire, "they had the audacity to sail up the Seine as far as Paris, which then had only wooden houses, and the inhabitants, with their king, Charles the Bald, flying from thence with their best effects, the Normans, (as they were called,) burnt their city, and were afterwards shamefully bought off by that wretched monarch, with fourteen thousand marks of silver, which only emboldened them the more."

Their fleets were commanded by the sons of Regner, king of Denmark, who ravaged the coasts of France, while another fleet laid Scotland and Ireland under contribution. They penetrated the Rhine to Cologne in 839, and burnt that city, with Treves and Nimeguen. At Aix-la-Chapelle they turned the palace into a stable, destroying churches, &c. everywhere. From France they landed in Gallicia, but were driven from thence by King Remer I. with the loss of seventy of their ships. They next plundered Seville and the adjacent country, and finally sailed up the Mediterranean and pillaged several towns in Italy. In 848 they surprised Bordeaux, and took William, duke of Gascony, prisoner. In this manner they continued from time to time till the year 890, to ravage and plunder the rest of Europe. In this latter year, Mezerai says, "two Norman leaders entered the river Meuse with ninety thousand men, leaving ten thousand to guard their vessels, but they were in the end defeated by Arnold, king of Germany." In king Egbert's time, (834,) they landed in England, and also subdued a great part of Ireland. It is even said, they commenced to build Dublin, Waterford and Limerick, with some other maritime towns, and to have kept them even to the coming of the English under Henry II. In 869 they landed in the county of Fife, in Scotland, and committed great ravages, and also conquered Northumberland.

In 876, Alfred the Great defeated at sea one hundred and twenty Danish vessels, and sunk most of them, and ten years afterwards, near the Isle of Wight, he took or destroyed their whole fleet. This monarch is said to have fought fifty-six battles with the Danes, and finally obliged those of that nation, who were in possession of Northumberland, East Anglesea and Mercia, to acknowledge him to be the sovereign of all England. In the year 890, Alan, duke of Bretagne, is said to have slain fourteen thousand six hundred of them.

Having, under their great chieftain, Rolla, forced a settlement in France ever since 895, in 905 they forbore all ravages and devastations, and being in possession of the city of Rouen, fixed their residence there; they now, instead of destroying the neighboring castles, began to fortify them, in order to maintain their settlement in that country. They continued to increase their conquests, and in 909, says Mezerai, "they were encouraged by the rival princes and great lords of France, who made use of them against each other, till in 912 their famous leader, Rolla, embracing Christianity, Charles the Simple not only made a truce with him, but, making a virtue of necessity, gave him in perpetuity, that part of Neustria, since, from thence named, Normandy, creating him duke of that country; and for the further securing his friendship, gave him his own daughter to wife." After which, great bodies of Normans settled in France; and Rolla, instead of sacking and burning, now improved Rouen, his capital residence.

In 964, Denmark, according to "Scholiast on Adami Bremensis Historia Ecclesiastica," was in this year entirely converted to the Christian religion. "King Harold VI. and all his people now openly professing it."

This did not, however, put an end to their predatory warfare, for in 980 they ravaged Scotland and the English coasts, and in 982 laid siege to London and greatly damaged it, but could not make themselves masters of it; this they did also in 994 and 998, but without success; yet they desolated Devonshire, Cornwall and Wales, wintering in the Isle of Wight, and laying waste Hampshire and Sussex. In this way they continued to wage this kind of warfare, until, in 1017, under Canute the Great, they finally conquered England. In 1044, they attempted the conquest of Scotland, but king Duncan sent Macbeth and Banquo against them, who defeated them with great slaughter.

In 1196, according to Meursicus's Historica Danica, published in Amsterdam in 1638, and other Danish historians, Canute V., king of Denmark, must have been a very potent prince, in the first named year, possessing almost all the south coast of the Baltic, along the German, Prussian and Livonian shores.

In 1203, says Arnoldus, who continued "the Chronicon Sclavicum, of Helmoldus," the people of Denmark abounded with great riches, "the wealthy being clothed not only in various sorts of scarlet, but also in purple and fine linen," and this resulted "from the fishery of herrings, which are annually taken on the coast of Schonen; traders of all nations resorting to Denmark, taking with them gold, silver and other precious commodities for purchasing herrings of the Danes." If this be true, they must, thus early, have had some way of curing them with salt, though, perhaps, not quite so well as the method which was not discovered till the next century by the Netherlanders.

Waldemar, king of Denmark, had conquered Mecklenburg, Pomerania, Holstein, Lubeck and Livonia; but his two sons, after his death, in 1242, we find from the Danish history, by disputing for the whole dominions, lost that really great empire, which Lubeck, in the infancy of the Hanseatic Confederacy, wrested from them, in revenge for having been driven away from the Danish fishery. The Lubeckers also attacked Copenhagen, and took and sacked its castles, returning home with great booty; so fluctuating was power in those early times. The latter people also again assaulted and burned Copenhagen in the year 1248, when it was still subject to the Bishop of Roschild, and remained so till 1284, when it was by him ceded to the crown, and it has ever since been the capitol of the Danish kingdom.

We find no account of any commerce between Denmark and England till the year 1304, for, according to the Fœdera, "king Edward I. having complained to Erick VII. king of Denmark, that certain Danish subjects had seized on the ship and wines of one John Yarmouth; Erick, in answer, tells Edward that justice shall be done therein: and further promises favor to any English subjects that shall resort to his dominions."

In 1348, King Waldemar had a naval war with the Hanse-towns, now very potent at sea, to the disadvantage of the Danes; for in that year a toll was demanded of the Hanseatic ships, for the privilege of passing the Sound, since styled sound dues. This was not only refused, but the Danish fleet was defeated, and most of the ships destroyed, so that to obtain peace, Waldemar was forced to assign to the Hanse-towns all the fine province of Schonen, for the space of fifteen years to come, by way of indemnification for their losses.

This is the most ancient account we have of the Danes demanding a toll, which has been exacted, and occasioned many disputes between the Danes and other nations.

The Danish and Norwegian historians fix on this period for the loss or vanishing of a Christian colony long before planted by them in Greenland, where they had built towns, and established a Bishop's see. They had traded there in the summer season, annually. In this year, an epidemical distemper is said to have swept away most of the Greenland merchants and seamen, since which, the correspondence with that country had been much interrupted, and at last entirely broken off by wars, revolutions, &c., in the Danish affairs at home. It is, indeed, the most singular instance in history, of a colony's being, in that manner, entirely lost, after some centuries of a fixed settlement, though but seven days' sail from Iceland.

In the 7th volume of the Fœdera, it also appears, "that king Richard II. of England, did this year lend to the famous Queen Margaret of Norway, Sweden and Denmark, the use of three large ships-of-war belonging to the port of Lynn, in Norfolk, for supporting and assisting her against the repeated assaults of the fleets of the Hanse-towns." Thus, those northern nations, which were formerly so terrible, and who, for the four last centuries, had overawed, ravaged, and at length actually conquered England with their numerous fleets, were finally necessitated to have recourse to English shipping for their own safety.

In 1395, the great Queen Margaret brought about the famous union of Calmar, or rather the ratification of it, by procuring herself to be recognised Sovereign Queen of all the three kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. Yet, notwithstanding that apparent formidable union, the Hanseatic League proved not seldom an overmatch for her; obliging her to deliver into their hands king Albert and his son, whom she had made prisoners, and also to give into their possession the cities of Stockholm and Calmar; but the cities of Lubeck, Hamburg, Dantzig, Thorne, Elbing, Straelsund, Stetin, and Campen, bound themselves to her in sixty thousand marks of fine silver, that king Albert should, in three years time, resign the whole kingdom of Sweden to her.

As a proof of her inferiority, she had, as already stated, borrowed three ships of war from the English king, Richard II. Indeed, the Hanse-towns had in those days more and better shipping, and much more money and wealth, than all those three kingdoms together; having, at this period, almost wholly engrossed the commerce of the north, as well as much of its fishery. Sweden and Norway are believed to have had none other than copper money at this period, while Denmark owed what silver money she had to her commerce with the Hanse-towns, whose fleets were at that time so powerful, as to strike terror into their continental neighbors. In Meursicus's "Historica Danica," he tells us of a famous city, called "Wishbuy," and that Erick, king of Denmark, associated with his aunt, Queen Margaret, attacked the Island of Gothland, before possessed by the Teutonic order in Prussia, and besieged its capital, Wishbuy, whose garrison made a stout resistance; whereupon the Emperor Wencellaus, as protector of the Teutonic order, forced the grand master of that order to yield that island to Erick, who obliged himself to pay to the grand master nine thousand gold nobles of England for the charges of the war; but Erick's money not being ready, the grand master held Gothland till yielded up by a subsequent treaty, when it was agreed, that the ancient league between Denmark and that order should be commercially revived.

In the year 1426, the Historica Danica relates, that Erick, king of Denmark, renewed with king James I. of Scotland, their ancient treaties, particularly that between Alexander III. of Scotland and king Magnus IV. of Norway, concerning the western isles of Scotland. That king was to receive of James a certain pension for a number of years, on account of the Isles of Man and Sodor, or Ikolmkell. There was, also, one hundred marks yearly to be paid by Alexander and his successors for the Orkney isles; but this last named payment being long omitted on account of wars and other accidents, king Erick now freely gave it up to king James I. Thus were the western isles, to all appearance, finally confirmed to be the property of the kingdom of Scotland, though that did not prove to be absolutely the case, till the year 1468, when James III. of Scotland married a daughter of the king of Denmark; but the Isle of Man had been long before this time in English hands.

About this time, say some few years after, there grew up several disputes between England and Denmark, relating to the fisheries on the coast of Norway, which induced king Henry VI. to grant letters of request to persons complaining of ill-treatment in that respect from the Danes; these letters declared that, "if restitution be not forthwith granted to the sufferers, the king will provide a remedy." Trade between England and Denmark was finally interdicted, although, in 1439, king Henry was obliged to apply to king Erick to permit a merchant of York to trade to Denmark for corn, of which there was a scarcity in England, owing to a long continuance of wet weather.

In the year 1143, Christopher III. of Denmark, attempted to get up a league against the Hanse-towns, in which, however, he was not successful, owing to the refusal of the Duke of Sleswick to join in it. This year, as an additional testimony of his hatred to the Hanse-towns, he granted a free commerce throughout the kingdom of Norway, formerly almost entirely monopolized by the Hanseatics, to the people of Amsterdam, and also to others. Copenhagen, which up to this time had remained the property of the Bishop of Roschild, the ancient capital of Denmark, was now surrendered to the crown, and became, as it has since remained, the capital of the kingdom. The writer spent much time in that city in the years 1810, 1811, and 1812, and can bear his testimony to its being at that period a splendid city, adorned with many palaces, churches, and magnificent private dwellings, with a population of over 100,000 souls. But to return to our historical sketch. In 1448, the English, attempting to fish and trade on the coast of Iceland, contrary to the repeated prohibitions by Denmark, and also to king Henry VI.'s proclamations concerning that prohibition, it seems that, on the governor of Iceland opposing the English in their attempts, they happened to kill him. In the year following, the Danes seized and confiscated four English ships, laden with merchandise, from Prussia, in revenge for the outrage in Iceland. This seizure caused infinite trouble to the German merchants in England, that is, those of the Steel Yard, in London; the English having construed that capture to be done with the privity and consent of the Hanse-towns, who had now made peace with Denmark; wherefore their ships and persons were seized in England; and "Werdenhagen" accuses the people of Cologne, and other occidental Hanse-towns, of deserting their brethren of the oriental Hanse-towns. Indeed, such defections of particular cities, through self-interest, was very common throughout the history of the Hanseatic confederacy. The German princes having in vain sued at the English court for the release of the said ships, persons, and merchandise, at length a war broke out between the English and the oriental Hanseatics, that is, the towns within the Baltic, on the German and Prussian shores, in which, according to the same author, the latter prospered so far, as that after several years war, the English were obliged to come to reasonable terms through the interposition of Charles, duke of Burgundy, and other princes: so that finally, by this renewal, all injuries were to be redressed on both sides.

In 1450, the Fœdera states that the ancient treaties between England and Denmark were revived, the English being permitted to resort to the ports of Denmark, and the Danes to England, paying only the ancient customs; also, that all English prisoners taken for trading in Iceland, Halgelandt, and Finmark, should be released, provided that the English, during this truce, being only for one year, do not sail nor trade to those three prohibited places.

In 1458 Denmark took possession of Hamburg; yet three years afterwards it recovered its former privileges.

In 1465 another commercial treaty was made between Christian I. and Edward IV. of England, which secured reciprocity of trade with Denmark, but denied all commerce to Iceland, Halgelandt, and Finmark, to England, chiefly, it is said, to prevent the fishing by the British on those coasts.

In 1489, a treaty of perpetual peace, commerce, and alliance, was concluded between king Henry VII. of England and king John of Denmark and Norway, by which all former injuries, violences, and captures, on both sides, were utterly to be buried in oblivion,

Liberty is given for the merchants and mariners, with their ships and merchandise, mutually to trade to the ports of both countries, with the privileges stipulated in former treaties; the ships of either party wrecked shall be assisted to refit, and to save and carry away all their merchandise without molestation. The other conditions of this treaty are highly liberal, and it is (says Anderson) "worthy of remark, that throughout this treaty, there is not the least mention of any peculiar privileges for Danish subjects in England; but the whole seems calculated for the English residing in, or trading to the Danish dominions. So that it appears as if there were then few or no Danish subjects residing in England, and also that we carried on all our trade to those territories entirely in our own bottoms." The "Historica Danica" relates, that about this period, were revived the complaints which the Danes had for a long time made against the Hanse-towns, regarding commercial matters; and particularly that when they carried their merchandise to those towns for sale, the Danes were not permitted to ask what price they thought fit for the same; but that the magistrates of those Hanse-towns assumed a power of arbitrarily setting a fixed price thereon; and these magistrates being generally merchants themselves, took great advantage thereof, so that the Danes were frequently obliged to sell at a losing price, as they were not permitted to re-export their merchandise from those towns, after they had once exposed it to sale; but at best, if not compelled to sell it at the price first fixed or offered, they had no other remedy but to lodge them in the citizens' warehouses till the prices should change in their favor. Thus Prince Christian II., though in other respects a cruel tyrant, (for which he was afterwards expelled and deposed,) brought Copenhagen to be the emporium for all Danish merchandise, to the great detriment of the Hanse-towns, viz.: Lubeck, Wismar, Rostock, Straelsund, Stetin, &c.

This proved a great blow to the commerce of the Hanse-towns, whose arbitrary proceedings induced other princes and states to adopt similar measures; and, as they grew wiser by experience, it also put them upon establishing manufactures, and other branches of commerce, at home, which gradually brought on the decay of the Hanse-towns.

It appears that the first charge by Denmark for sound dues had been only a golden rose noble on every sail, which was always understood to mean every ship or vessel; but, about the year 1550, the court of Denmark put a new and arbitrary construction on the word *sail*, and obliged all ships to pay a rose noble for every sail in or belonging to each ship. And not content with this imposition, they now proceeded to levy a duty on the corn and other merchandise per last or ton, distinct from that on the sails; which burdens obliged the Hanse-towns, that is, those situated within the sound, to desert the trade beyond it; and those high duties so discouraged them, that the Hollanders succeeded to this trade, greatly to their advantage, for a long period.

About this period, 1560, Denmark carried on a great trade to Antwerp, from her own ports, and from Eastand and Poland large quantities of iron, copper, brass, saltpetre, wood, madder, vitriol, flax, honey, wax, pitch, tar, sulphur, potashes, fine skins and furs of various kinds, and leather and timber; also, beer, salted provisions, dried and smoked fish, and numberless other products; for which they received return cargoes of spices, drugs, saffron, sugar, salt, English and Netherland cloth and stuffs, fustians, linens, wrought silks, gold stuffs, grograms, camlets, tapestries, precious stones, Spanish and other wines, alum, Brazil-wood, mercury, and household goods of all kinds.

Most of those northern ports were frozen up in the winter, and it being in those early times much more difficult than now to make voyages in the Mediterranean, so as to ensure their return home before winter, and finding that they could be supplied from Antwerp with whatever the earth produced, they made that city their grand staple for their own merchandise, as we have seen, taking what they desired in return. It is also an undoubted fact, that in proportion as the northern crowns increased their intercourse with the southern parts of Europe, they improved in their naval strength and commerce; and in nearly the same proportion did the Hanseatic towns decline in both respects, particularly those within the Baltic sea. M. Bruchet, in his naval history, observes, "That as Denmark possesses many islands and a large extent of country along the ocean, the Danes have for many ages had a considerable naval force; and he instances a great naval victory gained by the Danes over the Swedes in the reign of their king, Erick IV., who reigned between the years 1559 and 1568, when they lost to the Danes their admiral's ship, mounting 200 brass cannon, which was surrounded, overpowered, and set on fire."

In 1538, Queen Elizabeth sent Daniel Rogers as her envoy to the Danish court, not only with a view to keep that crown from abetting her foes, but for preventing their general practice of stopping English merchant ships in passing the sound for private men's offences; and that the toll for that passage might not be paid by the English. All which, however, were at this time postponed, under pretence of the king's minority, "for the Danes were a little discontented with the

English," continues Camden, "for they now sailed into Russia, not by the sound, but by the coasts of Norway, Finmark, and Lapland, &c." Rogers also demanded that the ancient league, which was to be renewed every seven years, for liberty for the English to fish at Iceland, might not be invaded; this point was, however, also postponed.

In the 16th volume of the Fœdera, we have the answer of king Christian IV. to Queen Elizabeth's complaints of the same exactions from English merchants, relating to the toll on the sound, in which the king vindicates his collectors from any injustice therein, and also in his turn warmly complains of certain English piratical ships who daily robbed his subjects; which violences (says he) are so intolerable, that he could neither conceal nor endure them any longer. He therefore hopes she will forthwith redress them, and prevent the necessity of his doing it himself, though unwillingly, &c., &c." "This was probably (says Anderson) the seizures made by the English of the Danish ships carrying naval stores into Spain.

In the 16th volume of the same book, (the Fœdera,) in the year 1595, we find that "Queen Elizabeth had written to Christian IV. of Denmark for his permission that a merchantman of Harwich might resort for fishing at, or to, the small island of Westmanna, adjacent to the island of Iceland; to which, in former years, she was wont to resort without interruption." The Danish king replied, "that the occasion of prohibiting her subjects from resorting thither was, that they took the liberty of frequenting it without asking leave, contrary to ancient treaties; and that if her subjects will comply with these ancient treaties they shall be free to fish at Iceland, the port of Westmanna alone excepted—the fishery of that port being now, as well as anciently, appropriated for the use and service of his own people.

In 1605, Christian IV. sent out three ships into Frobisher's Straits, with a view to the solution of the great problem of a north-west passage; these ships traded with the natives, some of whom they brought home to Copenhagen. These attempts were often repeated by the Danes, but, as is well known, without any material discovery.

In 1612 the Hollanders joined the Hanse-towns in a complaint to Christian IV. on account of the heavy additional toll, which, since the commencement of his war with Sweden, he had imposed on all ships passing the sound. Whereupon that king gave them the choice, either to pay the toll, or to let their merchandise be conveyed up the Baltic in Danish bottoms. The Lubeckers being, from their situation, peculiarly affected by that toll, loudly complained to the emperor, whose interference (if ever to be hoped for) being likely to be, as usual, very slow, they made a league with Holland for the mutual protection of their commerce and navigation, determined to send an armed force to the sound for that end; for the expense of which, seven-eighth parts was to be borne by Holland, and the other eighth part by Lubeck. This alliance was to last eleven years, during which the other Hanse-towns might come into it. Accordingly, afterwards, the cities of Magdeburg, Brunswick, Rostock, Straelsund, and Lunenburg, agreed to pay each one per cent., and Wismar, Gripswald, and Anclam each, one-half per cent., at their assembly held at Brunswick; Hamburg and Bremen are also mentioned by Werdenhagen, but their quotas are not named. The Lubeckers also earnestly represented to the emperor, that the Danes had seized and detained their ships and merchandise bound to Sweden; but the king of Denmark replied that the Lubeckers had free notice beforehand, that if they carried on any correspondence with his enemies he would make prizes of them; and with respect to the toll which he had laid on ships passing the sound during his war with Sweden, that was no more than what other princes do in like cases, "for that he was sovereign lord of the Baltic sea, or sound, the dominion of which was transmitted to him by his ancestors, seeing that a great portion of his territories bordered on that sea: wherefore he would never suffer his said sovereignty in the Baltic to be called in question."

Lord Molesworth, in his account of Denmark, as it was in the year 1692, says, "this passage of the sound being agreed to be the only passage into and from the Baltic sea, the great Belt became quite neglected. But there being no fixed rule nor treaty whereby to be governed with regard to the different size of the ships of so many different nations, the Danes in process of time began to grow arbitrary, and exacted more or less, according to the strength or weakness of those they had to deal with; or to their friendships or discontents with the several nations to whom the ships belonged. The Emperor Charles V. thereupon concluded, at Spire, a treaty with Denmark, in behalf of his Netherland subjects, who had great traffic in the Baltic, whereby every ship of two hundred tons and under, with her lading, should pay two rose nobles, about thirty shillings sterling, at its entrance into, or return from the Baltic, and every ship above two hundred tons, with her lading, should pay three rose nobles; which agreement remained in force till the seven provinces shook off the Spanish yoke, of which the Danes taking advantage, raised the toll on the Hollanders to an extravagant height. This brought on the alliance between the Dutch and Lubeckers, already mentioned, which in the end brought the Danes to reason. Yet, in after times, the Hollanders paid more or less, according as fortune was favorable or adverse to them, till the year 1647, when the first formal treaty was made by them with Denmark, as sovereigns, for forty years; at the expiration whereof, in the year 1687, another treaty was made, and that expiring in 1691, there remained in force only the ancient treaty of Spire. As for England's treaties with Denmark on this point, they were grounded on, and have reference to those of the Dutch, that England shall be treated upon the footing of the most favored nations, excepting always Sweden, whose ships paid no toll at all, as by their treaty with Denmark of 1644."

Yet since, viz., in 1720, the Swedes engaged by treaty to pay as all other nations.

The first account in history of this toll is in the year 1348. In the year 1640, the Danish court printed a book of rates, viz.: a ship of 200 tons burden, laden with salt and bound eastward, was to pay three hundred and thirty-four rix dollars and twenty-four stivers. Ditto, laden with rye, from the east, one hundred and eighty-four dollars and twenty-four stivers; so that the charges of a ship of that burden, with its outward and homeward cargoes, amounted to five hundred and nineteen rix dollars: and at that time the whole tax yielded about 300,000 rix dollars to the Danish treasury. Hereupon the Dutch united with Sweden, in 1643, and attacked Denmark by sea and land, so that the Danish court was obliged to reduce the tolls, on an average, to two hundred and forty-four rix dollars in all, on ship and cargo. The Hollanders, however, not satisfied with that reduction, brought Denmark to a new treaty in 1646, by which each ship and cargo was reduced to one hundred rix dollars in all, both outward and homeward. The Danes raising this toll so high, proved, it seems, the occasion of their losing some of their best provinces to Sweden. The English and Dutch have ever paid the toll with reluctance.

We have gone somewhat fully into the subject of the sound dues, because it is an exaction yet submitted to by all nations using the sound, or great belt, in a passage to Russia. England, as late as 1841, made a treaty with Denmark on this subject, by which a regular tariff was agreed upon, and a stipulated rate fixed for each article. It would occupy too much space to insert it here. Most articles of manufacture, such as muslins, glass, iron, linens, paper, porter, rum, woollens, &c., pay one per cent. ad valorem; other articles pay the specific duties enumerated in the tariff. American vessels and their cargoes pay the same.

In 1612 the Danes first began to resort to the East Indies, whither they have ever since carried on commerce. In about the year 1617, they settled at Tranquebar, on the Coromandel coast; but at the present time their trade thither is limited. In 1620 the Danes formed a scheme for possessing themselves of the cinnamon trade at Ceylon, having for that purpose sent out five ships, escorted by two men of war; but the Portuguese were in possession of it, and this expedition failed of its object, and returned home without accomplishing it.

In 1621, Hamburg having set up a claim to the exclusive navigation of the river Elbe, Christian IV. of Denmark placed some ships of war in that river; but as the emperor had granted a charter to that city, confirming their said claim, Denmark erected a toll-house at Gluckstadt, where, by way of reprisal, they made all Hamburg ships pay toll. This brought on open hostilities between them, by which Hamburg was a great sufferer, and was in the end obliged to submit to Denmark, and to pay for obtaining peace one million one hundred and twenty thousand livres, besides dropping their monopolising jurisdiction.

The Caribee island of St. Cruz, or St. Croix, had, it seems, in early times been subject to many masters in a short space. The French historians of the Caribees state, that the English and Dutch had a long contest about their respective titles to it, and at length they divided it between them; yet in 1649 the English obliged the Dutch inhabitants to quit the island. Soon after, the Spaniards from Porto Rico invaded it, burned their houses, killed all the English who resisted, and obliged the rest to flee to Barbuda. But whilst these Spaniards were about to return back to Porto Rico, two armed French ships arrived at Santa Cruz, in the year 1650, and overpowered the Spaniards, obliging them to return forthwith to Porto Rico. The French thus became settled at St. Cruz, and sold it to the Danish West India Company at Copenhagen.

The Danes have held the island of St. Thomas for a long time, and it is not known when the settlement was first made there. This island is about seven leagues in compass, and from its situation is favorable to commerce, especially of a contraband trade with neighboring islands and territories of other European nations. It is one of a cluster of small islands near Porto Rico, called the Virgin Isles, and is a free port.

In 1653, under the auspices of king Frederick III. of Denmark, another attempt was made for a northeast passage to China. Three vessels were sent out, which, it is said, actually passed through Waygat's Straits; an enterprise in which neither the English or Dutch had succeeded. In the bay beyond those straits the Danes found insurmountable obstacles, in the accumulation of ice and the extreme cold, so that they were obliged, as we know, to return without success.

In 1654, Cromwell concluded a treaty of peace and commerce with Denmark, by which England was to be favored, as much in the customs, tolls, &c., as were the Hollanders, or any other nation except the Swedes, who at that time paid no duties for passing the sound—neither were the English ships, passing up the Elbe to Hamburg, to pay any toll or customs dues, nor to be stopped or searched at Gluckstadt, nor at any other port on the Elbe, belonging to Denmark.

In the year 1658, the Swedish fleet besieged Copenhagen, where the Danish king, Christian III. was, then in great distress. The Dutch fleet, under Admiral Opdam, defeated at this time that of Sweden, and relieved the Danish king and his capital city. The next year, the Dutch Admiral, De Ruyter, joined the Danish fleet, and again defeating that of Sweden, brought about a pacification at Roschild, between those two northern crowns, through the mediation of England and France.

Yet in the following year, 1659, the Swedes, under their king, Charles Augustus, were so successful in a fresh war against Denmark, as to oblige that crown to restore the fine province of Scania or Sco en to Sweden, after Denmark had been in possession of it for three centuries; which cession threw much weight into the scale of Sweden, but appeared to have reduced both crowns nearer to an equilibrium than before, with reference to European states trading to the Baltic sea. For the Danish court having further embarrassed the trade of other nations, by the arbitrary increase of the tolls for passing the sound, the two commonwealths, England and Holland, and the Court of France, had entered into a joint treaty at the Hague, in the same year, 1659, not only for obliging Denmark and Sweden, then at war, to make peace, but by the 6th article of the treaty, it was stipulated, "that no new duty, toll, or other impost, on account of beacon light-houses, anchorages, or for other pretensions, be for the future raised in the sound, or the great or little belt, by any persons whatsoever, upon the said three states, or either of them, or upon their subjects. And with respect to the duties or tolls, which are paid there by virtue of the treaty made at London, between the late Protector and the crown of Denmark, and of another treaty made between the said crown and the United Provinces, in the year 1645, they shall never be augmented upon the three states, nor on any of them, upon any cause or pretext whatever. And if it shall happen that more favorable or advantageous conditions in one of the said treaties than there are in the others, with regard to the toll, or the manner of raising it, the said three states, and each of them, shall for the future enjoy the said more favorable conditions, equally; as also, all other privileges and exemptions, and shall be guarantees thereof one to the other."

It seems, that prior to this treaty, the Danes often varied the tolls they exacted from ships passing the sound. Sometimes they laid, as we have stated, a rose noble on every ship, besides one per cent. lastage—sometimes three and one-half per cent.—and at other times, even a thirtieth part of all the cargo was demanded and taken. Queen Elizabeth sent four solemn embassies to Denmark, in order to get these tolls moderated and fixed at some certainty—all was, however, to little purpose.

According to a Danish author, the Greenland company from Bergen, in Norway, sent out, in 1721, a colony to settle old Greenland, after, as we have stated, a large Norwegian colony had been destroyed, or otherwise lost in that country, some hundreds of years before. Mr. Egede, who went with this new colony, states, that they found there, some old marks of old habitations and of ancient tillage. He thinks that the old Norwegian colony must have been destroyed by the savage natives, or by an unusual pestilence, and that the country was forgotten by the Danes and Norwegians till the year 1619, when, as we have also related, some fruitless attempts were made from Copenhagen to find out the country where that old colony had been settled. The following is a list we find in Anderson, of the ships engaged, in the year 1721, in the whale fishery to Greenland and Davis's Straits.

From Holland	251 ships.
" Hamburg	55 "
" Bremen	24 "
" Ports in the bay of Biscay	20 "
" Bergen in Norway	5 "
Total	355 "

This list, which was published in London about that time, probably encouraged the new South Sea court of directors to propose a whale fishery, which, however, was not finally agreed to, till three years thereafter.

In 1728, the Danish East India Company, residing at Copenhagen, published proposals for a new subscription, to be taken at Altona, near Hamburg, for enlarging their former capital stock. These proposals contained very favorable terms to the new subscribers, entitling them to all the benefits and privileges, &c. of the original corporators, &c. &c.

In proof of the good condition of the then East India Company, they stated, " that they had very valuable effects, such as Tranquebar on the coast of Coromandel, two hundred pieces of cannon, munitions of war of all kinds, and a yearly income of ten thousand crowns, with several duties and revenues increasing every year; that besides, they had the Castle of Danneburg on the same coast, conveniently situated for trade, and particularly in pearls and diamonds; also, Porto Novo on the same coast; two ships with their cargoes, now at sea, bound to Tranquebar, and other valuable ships and factories. From all which might be gathered their then state and condition.

By an edict of Frederick V., king of Denmark, dated in March, 1751, we find that Old Greenland, as it was called, was actually re-settled, and that all other persons, of whatever nations, were prohibited from resorting to the colony, and even the king's own subjects, without a special permission; the settlement being declared to be intended for the whale and seal fishery, and for peltry.

If we believe Dr. Busching, a German author of credit, between four and five thousand ships sailed annually through the sound, for some time previous to 1752, and in that year, above six thousand. The old subject of the toll for passing, he again brings forward, accusing the Danes of making extortions, &c., and says, while English, Dutch, Swedes and French ships were not searched, and paid down only one per cent., all other nations were made to pay one and a quarter per cent.; and with regard to the Hanse-towns, almost every one of them was treated with, in particular.

In 1759 the king of Denmark caused a census to be taken, and that in all his possessions of Denmark, Norway, Holstein, the islands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburg and Dalmendorst, in Westphalia, they amounted to two millions four hundred thousand souls—his subjects in Iceland not being included.

In 1762 it appears that fraudulent exportations took place of the current coins of Denmark, and that the king directed the bank to issue small notes, of fifty, ten, and even one rix dollar, and not to pay to any one person over a crown in specie.

At present, Denmark is very much reduced in territory, that kingdom possessing only a peninsula and several islands in the Baltic. The aspect of these are flat, having no mountains and few elevations. The rivers, a portion of which flow through the possessions of Denmark, on the continent, are the Eider, the Elbe, the Trave and the Güden. The soil, though in many parts rocky, and in others sandy, is generally adapted either for grazing or for the growth of wheat, barley, oats, peas, potatoes, and all kitchen vegetables, flax, hemp, tobacco and madder. In some parts there are very extensive turf bogs.

She has numerous excellent seaports; the principal are Copenhagen and Elsineur in the island of Zealand, and on the continent, Schleswig, Holstein, Kiel, Sleswig, Flensburg, Randers, Echenforde, Frederick's Haven, Gluckstadt and Altona, within one mile of Hamburg.

The Faro islands, the inhospitable island of Iceland, and some miserable settlements in Greenland; Tranquebar and Serampore in Hindostán; Guinea in Africa, and Santa Cruz, St. Thomas, and St. John, in the West Indies, are all the colonies at present belonging to Denmark. St. Thomas, as we have already stated, possesses an excellent harbor, and is conveniently situated for trade. The fisheries of Denmark are the most important part of her maritime commerce.

The island of Zealand, on which Copenhagen is situated, is of a good soil, highly cultivated, and has many beautiful lakes, and fine situations, although very slight elevations.

They have a regular tariff of duties, very minute and specific in its details. The skillings, 96 of which are equal only to a rix dollar banco, worth about two shillings and three pence sterling, are subdivided into irregular fractions. Refined sugar, syrups, molasses, playing cards, coffee roasted and ground, or any substitute for it, are prohibited.

The following articles are free of all duty: books, specimens of objects, illustrations of natural history, wearing apparel, hemp and linseed oil, pot and pearl ashes, when imported in ships of the country of which they are the production.

Cloths, and all other stuffs made of wool, and sold by the ell, including fustians, &c., and calicoes and all colored and figured stuffs, and also cotton hose, must be stamped when imported, and are to be sold at auction by the customs, who retain 30 per cent. of the gross proceeds, and deliver the remaining 70 per cent. to the importer.

All articles passing through any port of Denmark pay a transit duty.

There is now a printed tariff and regulations for exacting the sound dues, which are paid, whether passing the sound, or the great or little belt.

With regard to goods and merchandise not enumerated in the said tariff of 1645, the sound duty is to be paid upon their value, which value is to be computed according to the places whither they are proceeding, and one per cent. is to be paid of such value. The general tariff, either of duties in Denmark, or of the sound dues, we do not deem worthy of further remark, or room in our limited space. Should any of our readers desire to see the details, we refer them to Macgregor's Statistics—where they will find these details—item by item. Our commerce with Denmark is quite small. We shall give a particular account of our trade there for the last year, and then offer a few tables to show the general trade of this now very limited monarchy, which, however, as we have seen, played a great roll for several centuries, in the commercial and other doings of the northern portion of Europe.

AREA, POPULATION, &c., OF DENMARK, 1830.—(Official Returns.)

Kingdom and Colonies.	Square Miles.	Population 1830.	Inhabitants to Square Miles.	Capital Towns.	Population 1830.
Denmark Proper...	17,808	1,521,278	85	Copenhagen.....	104,174
Holstein and Lauenburg............	3,658	410,385	112	Kiel............	8,000
Iceland..........	29,800	49,820	12½	Rickiavig.......	500
North Faro, Greenland............	"	11,240		—	—
St. Cruz St. Thomas, &c.........	178	46,290	360	— —	— —
Guinea, in Africa, and Tranquebar, in Asia..........	522	28,000	52½	—	—
Total.........	51,996	2,067,013	392½		

RACES OF INHABITANTS.

Danes................	1,209,531	Negroes...............	43,000
Germans...............	648,000	Hindoos...............	19,000
Frisons and Angles......	70,000	Esquimaux.............	7,000
Normans...............	55,000	Jews..................	6,000

A Review of the Navigation inwards and outwards through the Sound during the Ten Years, from 1827 *to* 1836, *showing the average number of Ships, and the share of each Nation in the Baltic trade.*

NATIONS.	Aggregate No. of Ships in ten years.	Average No. of one year.	Share per cent. of each Nation.
1. British	38,323	3,832	31,44
2. Prussian	20,611	2,062	16,91
3. Norwegian	12,943	1,294	10,62
4. Swedish	11,346	1,135	9,31
5. Dutch	9,033	903	7,41
6. Danish	8,183	818	6,71
7. Mecklenburg	6,094	609	5,
8. Russian	4,853	485	3,98
9. Hanoverian	4,761	476	3,90
10. Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen	1,887	188	1,54
11. American	1,696	170	1,40
12. French	1,408	141	1,16
13. Oldenburg	488	49	40
14. Spanish	89	9	22
15. Portuguese	25	3	
16. Italian States	124	12	
17. Belgian	38	4	
Totals	121,902	12,190	100

In 1837 the number of ships which passed inwards and outwards, were			13,100
1838	ditto	ditto	13,960
1839	ditto	ditto	16,175
1840	ditto	ditto	15,662

Statement of Ships which passed through the Sound in 1840.

COUNTRIES.	From the Ocean.			From the Baltic.		
	Loaded.	Ballast.	Total.	Loaded.	Ballast.	Total.
British	1,058	1,000	2,058	2,010	3	2,013
Swedish	572	115	687	632	49	681
Norwegian	767	251	1,018	904	84	988
Prussian	641	861	1,505	1,517	4	1,521
Dutch	168	256	424	529	1	530
Mecklenburg	197	294	491	473	2	475
Russian	252	136	388	411	7	418
Hanoverian	137	229	366	409	..	409
French	83	37	120	118	1	119
Hanseatic Lubeck	44	5	49	45	2	47
Bremen	20	5	25	35	..	35
Hamburg	6	1	7	15	1	16
American	66	4	70	64	4	68
Oldenburg	24	11	35	34	..	34
Neapolitan	23	1	24	18	4	22
Belgian	3	7	10	10	..	10
Spanish	4	6	10	9	..	9
Portuguese	..	1	1	4	..	4
Tuscan	2	..	2	3	..	3
Sardinian	1	..	1	..	..	..
Danish	444	64	508	440	21	461
Totals	4,515	3,284	7,799	7,680	183	7,863

Statement, the particulars of which (although not derived from Official Sources, may, on the whole, be relied on in point of correctness) show the revenue of the Sound Toll during the 17 years, from 1821 to 1837, inclusive, together with the proportion paid by British Ships.

Years.	Total No. of vessels which passed the Sound.	Total Amount of Sound duty paid.	No of British Ships which passed the Sound.	Amount of Sound duty paid by British Ships.	Proportion to the total amount of Sound duty paid.
		£		£	
1821........	9,177	166,918	2819	66,980	40 per cent.
1822........	9,494	141,953	3099	51,687	37 “
1823........	9,214	148,139	3016	49,000	37 “
1824........	10,547	143,070	3502	53,684	33 “
1825........	13,143	137,632	5156	57,248	41 “
1826........	11,065	116,783	3730	41,959	36 “
1827........	13,037	146,056	5103	702,202	37 “
1828........	13,258	138,373	4431		
1829........	13,486	155,611	4805		
1830........	13,312	161,445	4274		
1831........	12,946	141,889	4772		
1832........	12,202	137,777	3330		
1833........	10,985	136,667	3192		
1834........	10,605	137,222	2756		
1835........	10,255	177,324	2472		
1836........	11,916	211,094	3181		
1837........	13,102	213,997	3417		
In 17 years..	197,641	£2,611,950	63,055	£1,022,660	631
Average of 1 year.	11,626	£153,644	3709	£60,156	37 per cent.

Recapitulation.

	£	s.	d.
I. Annual Charge upon the trade to the United Kingdom,	45,766	11	3
II. “ “ upon British shipping..............	11,168	10	4
Total Annual Charge.................	£56,935	1	7

It must be remarked, that all the expenses upon the shipping being charged by custom at the rate of 5*s.* sterling to the specie dollar, (instead of 4*s.* 6*d.*) the amount actually paid on that head is about 13,500*l.* per annum.

The sums stated (No. I. and II.) do not include the duty upon the British trade to the Baltic, which may be estimated at 60,000*l.* more, so that the whole burden imposed upon British shipping and trade in the Sound will amount to near 120,000*l.* a year.

Statement of the Number, Tonnage, and Crews of British Vessels, which arrived at and departed from the principal Ports of Denmark, (Holstein excepted) in the year 1838.

PORTS.	ARRIVED.			DEPARTED.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Crew.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crew.
Copenhagen	108	21,112	995	108	21,112	995
Elsinore	4	1,051	45	4	1,051	45
Wedbeck	4	763	37	4	763	37
Kiöge	2	377	18	2	377	18
Stevens Head	1	137	7	1	137	7
Nestved	1	130	7	1	130	7
Callundborg	1	200	10	1	200	10
Corsoer	2	334	16	2	334	16
Assens	1	87	5	1	87	5
Sonderborg	1	212	10	1	212	10
Flensborg	1	72	5	1	72	5
Haderslev	1	243	10	1	243	10
Total	127	24,718	1,165	127	24,718	1,165

The trade of Holstein, especially its exports, being chiefly through Hamburg and Altona, with the exception of some direct exportations of grain, butter, cheese and tallow, the commerce of that duchy will be noticed under the section hereafter for the Hanse-towns.

Statement of the number of Vessels which arrived at Copenhagen from Foreign Ports, distinguishing the trade with each Country, in the year 1838.

Countries from which arrived.	Number of Vessels.	Countries from which arrived.	Number of Vessels.
Great Britain and Ireland	186	Spain	6
Norway	152	Mediterranean	13
Sweden	507	United States	7
Russia	149	South America	5
Prussia	585	West Indies	27
Mecklenburg	7	East	1
Lubeck	55	Iceland	47
Hamburg	13	Faroe Islands	11
Bremen	13	Greenland	7
Holland	20	Spitzbergen	4
Belgium	6		
France	28	Total	1,867
Portugal	18		

An Approximate Statement of quantities of the principal articles of Merchandise imported into Copenhagen during each year, from 1836 *to* 1838, *inclusive.*

DESCRIPTION.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Sugar, St. Croix...lbs.	5,050,000	4,800,000	5,845,000
Ditto, Foreign Plantation... "	5,470,000	6,500,000	4,510,000
Coffee... "	2,300,000	2,600,000	2,000,000
Cotton...Bales	600	419	100
Rice, Carolina...Casks	2,070	200	610
Ditto, East India...Bags	500	....	1,124
Ditto, in the husk, or paddy...Bushels	62,700	63,400	31,208
Tobacco...Casks	450	529	Not stated.
Bales	1,721	1,655	do
Potash...Casks	3,400	2,400	2,750
Train oil and blubber...Barrels	16,200	17,420	20,100
Iron, Swedish and Norwegian...Cwts	40,000	48,000	45,000
Salt...Quarters	21,000	14,000	29,000
Wool, Iceland...Cwts	7,800	6,300	5,700
Fish, dried and salted... "	22,000	26,600	18,000
Tar...Barrels	42,000	32,000	21,000
Oranges and lemons...Boxes	11,000	11,000	7,000
Herrings...Barrels	15,500	19,200	17,250
Rum...Casks	2,290	2,600	3,070

The importations from England into Copenhagen, as well as into the lesser ports of Denmark, are confined chiefly to coals, salt, and iron.

Extract from a despatch from Consul Mac Gregor, dated Elsinore, May, 1839:

"With regard to the trade of Copenhagen, the vice-consul reports, that a good deal of activity prevailed there in the corn trade, particularly towards the fall of the year 1838, consequent upon the demand for wheat in England, combined with the supplies of rye and barley required by Sweden and Norway.

"About 60,000 quarters of corn, of which one-fourth is wheat, appear to have been exported from Copenhagen; but a far greater quantity was shipped from the outports. The trade with the British possessions in America, which continues to be on the increase, was carried on last year in twenty-eight British vessels, of 4481 tons, and the quantities of provisions exported for the supply of those colonies, amounted to nearly 9000 cwt. of wheat flour, 3000 cwt. of biscuits, and 6000 cwt. of salted beef and pork. On the other hand, the importation of colonial produce has fallen short of what it used to be in former times, especially as respects the two important articles of sugar and coffee, of which direct consignments become less frequent every year,—the latter article especially. The common sorts, therefore, continue to be imported from Hamburg *via* Kiel, to avoid the Sound duty, which presses heavily upon this, as upon many other commodities forming objects of our trade.

"Although the importation of British coals (about 8000 chaldrons) is improving with the greater extent given to the application of steam in Denmark, yet no change for the better is apparent in the legal trade of British manufactures; nor is this to be expected, unless the duties are considerably reduced, and the restrictions entirely removed.

"The vice-consul at *Aalborg* states, that not a single British vessel entered that port last year, the whole of the trade with England having been carried on under the Danish flag. The importation seems to have been confined to a few cargoes of *salt* and *iron*, and to twenty-two cargoes of coals, for which returns were made in rape seed, oil-cakes, hides, and bones, as wheat is not grown in that part of the country in sufficient quantities to become an article of exportation.

Statement of the quantities of Corn and Flour exported from Denmark and from the Duchies of Holstein and Sleswick, during the year 1839.

	Tönde, 3 4-5 imp. bus. ea.
Wheat, to England	161,724
Do. to the Hanse-towns	54,753
Do. Flour, to England	28,773
Do. to the Hanse-towns	4,748
Rye, to Sweden and Norway	196,934
Do. to the Hanse-towns and Altona	36,400
Do. Flour, to the Danish Antilles	2,879
Barley, to England	502,771
Do. to Sweden and Norway	477,453
Do. to the Hanse-towns	32,666
Do. Meal and Pearled Barley, to Sweden and Norway	17,710
Oats, to England	67,832
Do. to the Hanse-towns and Altona	75,721
Do. Meal to do.	2,100
Peas, Beans, &c., to England	46,660
Do. to Sweden and Norway	46,084
Do. to the Hanse-towns	33,572
Rape and other seeds, to England	153,600
Do. to the Hanse-towns	20,330
	1,942,710
Total of grain, flour, and seeds, to all other countries	243,847
Total of corn, &c., exported	2,186,557 tönde, or barrels.
Equal in hectolitres to	3,006,514
Or equivalent to *nearly*	1,093,278 Eng. imperial quarters.

Recapitulation of quantities of Corn, Grain, &c., exported to England, during the year 1839.

	Tönde.
Wheat	161,724
Ditto flour	28,773
	190,497

Brought forward	190,497
Rye, *nil*	
Barley	502,771
Ditto meal, *nil*	
Oats	67,832
Peas, Beans, &c.	46,660
Rape and other seeds	153,600
	961,360 tonde or barrels.
Equivalent to nearly	240,340 imperial quart'rs

The other exports were chiefly—11,674 horses, 27,904 oxen, 7,459 cows, 10,737 calves, 14,425 pigs, 16,264 sheep and lambs, 1,388,248 pots of distilled spirits, chiefly to Iceland, Greenland, and the Hanse-towns, and Dutch West Indies.

11,272,900 lbs. Danish, of fresh, salted, and smoked beef and pork; of which quantity there were exported to England for re-exportation, 1,546,800 lbs.

Cheese, 1,070,500 lbs. chiefly to Sweden, Mecklenburg, and the Hanse-towns; 73,732 barrels of butter, chiefly to the Hanse-towns; 76,300 tons of tallow.

315,400 lbs. of tallow candles; 1,601,100 lbs. calf, of sheep, and lambs' skins; 1,819,000 lbs. of ox, cow, and horse hides; 1,737,100 lbs. of wool; 9,929,600 lbs. of bones.

Statement of Domestic Exports from the United States to Denmark, for the year ending 30th June, 1845, taken from the Treasury Report on the commerce and navigation of the United States.

Staves, heading, &c.		$1,499
Other lumber		41
Whale and other fish oils		7,818
Rosin and turpentine		40
Flour		250
Rice		93,486
Cotton		7,254
Tobacco		13,552
Hops		600
Paints and varnish		126
		124,666
Foreign Exports.		
Tea Coffee and dye-woods	$11,516	
Brown and white sugars	8,636	
Pimento	349	
		20,501
Total exports to Denmark		$145,167

Statement of Domestic Imports from Denmark to the United States, for the year ending 30th June, 1845, from the Treasury Report on the commerce and navigation of the United States.

Distilled spirits	$433
Bar Iron	20,291
Total imports from Denmark	$20,724

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS IN THE STATE OF NEW-YORK.

To the Editor:

Sir,—In page 363 of your useful work for September, 1845, I notice you have given elaborate statements relative to the canals of New-York, and their conexion with those of Pennsylvania; also, tables showing the effect of our internal improvements on the real estate of the state, and the city of New-York.

Believing, as I do, that this subject is one of the most important that can occupy the public attention, I offer for your acceptance the following views, which I trust you will find interesting. They are the substance of what I felt it my duty to lay before our state legislature at its late session.

It is very desirable that the people of this state should examine fully into the condition and prospects of our great chain of canals, connected, as they are, with that immense system of internal navigation and trade which has been so nobly commenced, and which, if properly completed, is destined, at no distant day, to exhibit a scene of prosperity of a magnitude which has no parallel on the globe.

You will see how, in my opinion, we are neglecting our best interests, by the policy we have pursued in stopping short in these great works, and not only suffering former improvements to go to decay and ruin, but that we are losing a golden harvest, because we have not been willing to pay the expense of gathering it.

In my opinion, this neglected topic is one more deeply connected with the happiness, comfort and prosperity of the people of the State and City of New-York, than any other which has come under the consideration of the Legislature.

We have 714 miles of navigable canals, connecting with about 800 miles of internal navigation, penetrating almost every portion of the state, and bringing a convenient market to nearly all our citizens.

Nor is it true, as has been alleged, that to proceed is building up a portion of the state at the expense of the other parts. If you will look into the subject, you will find that every town and county of this commonwealth, from Montauk Point to Chautauque, from St. Lawrence to Niagara river, and from the Pennsylvania line to the Canada shore, has a deep stake in this most desirable public interest.

If you begin at the great emporium, you will find the navigable Hudson extending north, but a little distance from the New-England line, 160 miles;—from its navigable termination, the Champlain canal connects with lakes George and Champlain, thus giving you navigable waters almost to the Canada lines.

Another branch, the Erie canal, connects through the distance of 360 miles this navigation with the great chain of lakes, and the Ohio and Mississippi. Again, the Chenango canal stretches from Utica, 96 miles, near to the Pennsylvania line, and the head navigation of the Susquehannah. As you pass west from Utica to Rome, a distance of not more than 16 miles, you come to the Black River canal, nearly finished, extending navigation northwardly to within a short distance of Lake Ontario. From this point 16 miles further west you come to the Oneida River canal, connecting the Erie canal with Oneida Lake, with a border of more than 60 miles in circumference, the outlet of which connects with Lake Ontario through the Oswego canal. Passing only 22 miles further, you come to the Oswego canal, connecting the Erie canal with Lake Ontario, giving another remote part of the state a market to facilitate the intercourse, and make valuable the surplus products of the country.

From the junction of the Oswego canal with Erie as you pass west, in about twenty miles you meet the Cayuga and Seneca canal, connecting with Cayuga and Seneca lakes, each stretching a small distance from, and parallel to, the other, forty miles south; thus connecting the inhabitants on the rich borders of both lakes with the Atlantic. From the west side of Seneca Lake extends a short canal, called the Crooked Lake canal, into and connecting Seneca with Crooked Lake; and from the southern end of Seneca Lake commences the Chemung canal, extending the navigation to within a few miles of the Pennsylvania line.

As we pass further west on the Erie canal we next come to the Genesee Valley canal, at Rochester, now completed about fifty miles, and more than two-thirds finished, to Olean, connecting with the head waters of Ohio, on the Pennsylvania line.

Never, perhaps, were the expenditures of a government more equally diffused or more equitably dispensed.

The whole expense of this chain of inland navigation, bringing a market near to all the remote counties of the state, and connecting them with the Atlantic, ready to commingle with the commerce of the world, now amounts to about thirty millions of dollars, all told. The interest on this sum at the usual rate would amount to about $1,500,000. Their net income during the last season of navigation amounts to over $2,150,000; thus leaving a profit of over $600,000. As this is paid by those who use the canal, no portion of the state, even if remote from these waters, would seem to have any right to complain.

Our own citizens who use them are content, because foreign states pay more than half of these revenues.

If we take into consideration the value of this commerce, as a portion of the commerce of the country, we shall see, in any view we can take, that it suffers not by a comparison with any other interest in the nation.

The foreign and coast commerce of the United States costs the nation about eight millions of dollars annually.

The canal navigation costs, in expense and interest, if we take the whole, about $2,000,000.

The tons of products and merchandise moved on these canals the year past was..................................1,977,565 tons.

The total tonnage clearing, from all the ports of the United States, coasters and all, in the year 1844, as appears from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, was ....2,010,924 tons.

The difference, only .... 43,359 tons.

The tonnage entering all the ports of the United States, was ....1,977,438 tons.

Being twenty-seven tons less than the tons of movement on the canals.

If we compare values, the contrast is not less striking.—The value of all the products and merchandise carried on the canals the year past, as appears from the Trade and Tonnage Report of the Commissioners of the Canal Fund, was...................$100,629,859

The whole amount of all the exports of products and merchandise from the United States, as appears by the Secretary's Report for the year 1844, was....... 99,715,179

Difference in favor of canal commerce............... 914,680

Again, if we compare the tons moved on the canals, with the tonnage entering and arriving at the port of New-York, from and to all parts, we find how much greater is the canal navigation.

In 1844, the tonnage cleared from New-York, foreign and domestic, was...................................... 498,254 tons.

And of all that entered that port was............. 576,480 tons.

Total.........................1,074,734

Being in all 902,831 tons less than was carried on the canals.

Again, the total value of all the exports from the city of New-York, clearing from that port in 1844 to all places, was $32,891,540. Whilst the value of the products carried to the tide water on the canals the past year, was $45,452,321. So that whatever comparison you institute, you find that this internal navigation is by far the greatest interest of the state.

If these great channels of business are the connecting links between citizens of different portions of this government, interwoven with all their business, how important it is that they should receive the fostering care, and protecting hand of the executive and legislative powers of the state.

We are now actually in debt for all these canals, over the moneys now on hand applicable to their payment, $16,544,815 87. The annual interest of this sum, which is paid by the state, as given us by the comptroller, page 7, *after deducting what is paid, and the means of payment*, is...... .... $910,258 30

The whole expense of repairs, superintendence and collection of tolls the year past, (and this exceeds the average of years by over $160,000,) is............ 562,893 83

Together making *for the whole expense of the canals*... 1,473,152 13

Brought forward	1,473,152	13
The amount of tolls collected on the canals the last navigable season, was	2,646,453	78
Leaving a clear balance, after paying interest and all expenses, of	1,173,301	65

When stripped of all mystification, and mixing up of one fund with another.

If we should take from this net income the interest on all the other debts of the state, which were given in the Comptroller's report of 1846, page 7, at $5,885,549 24, the interest of which is given on the same page, it would stand thus:—

Net income from canals	1,173,301	65
Interest on all the debts of the state, beside canal debt.	325,298	34
There would then remain a surplus of	$848,003	31

So it seems this great interest is not only an important one, as connected with the business and comforts of the people, but in any fair point of view in which it can be considered, it is a source of public wealth and revenue, establishing our fiscal concerns on a most substantial basis. These canals are the channels used by at least four-fifths of the territory of the state for conveying our products to market, and obtaining the necessaries and comforts in return. It will be found that they are used for these purposes, by at least 1,700,000 of the people of this state. The Erie canal is used as a channel for 1,500,000 of the people of Ohio; 400,000 in Indiana; 300,000 in Michigan; 400,000 in Illinois, and 100,000 in Wisconsin—making in all 2,700,000 of the people of the west, as a transit to and from the Atlantic.

The average increase of business on these inland communications for the last ten years, has exceeded 7½ per cent. a year; and the like increase for the next ten years would swell the receipts to $4,631,393; and of this increase, without any additional connecting communications, if we take into view the rapid settlements in the west, there cannot be a single doubt.

Thus far I have only considered the canals in reference to their present condition, and shown by facts what benefits they confer on the state, as they are. But there is another and not less momentous view of this subject. A few years ago, when we had from the avails of the Erie and Champlain canals, accumulated a fund adequate to the reimbursement of the entire debt incurred for their cost, and had in the meantime constructed the Oswego, Cayuga and Seneca, Chemung, Crooked Lake and Chenango canals, and paid from the earnings of the Erie and Champlain canals the interest on the cost of these lateral canals during the process of construction, and found the canal debt of the state considerably less than when the Erie and Champlain canals were completed, and discovered in these channels a source of great income and boundless wealth to our people, we found other regions of this great state yet without a market. We cast about and resolved on opening two more channels of communication. The Genesee Valley and Black River canals were undertaken. At the same time it was discovered that in view of the rapidly increasing and populating west, its boundless resources, which would multiply to an incalculable extent, the Erie canal would soon be too small for the transit of its multiplied products, and after consulting the experience of the past, and making careful estimates of the progress of the future, we undertook the enlargement of that channel also.

Now, I will not stop here to inquire whether these two canals were judicious or prudent undertakings. I admit they partook a little of the character of the times, and it might not have been wise to commence their construction at so early a period. But in the fullness of our generosity to our brethren in those regions, and actuated by an enterprising and patriotic spirit, we did undertake them. We have expended on the Genesee Valley canal $3,794,000 00
If we add the interest paid on the loans for the same..1,192,595 65

We then have the whole cost thus far at............$4,986,595 65

About 60 miles of this canal are completed and in use, and now paying to the state, if we give honest credit for the increase it gives the Erie canal, a good income on what the finished portion cost. To complete the unfinished portion would now cost, according to the highest estimates, about $1,300,000, or about 2-5ths as much as has been already expended on it. And the question now is, not whether the original project was a wise one, but whether it would now be good economy to complete it, and save what you have expended, and fulfil the faith of the state pledged to the people in that section.

So with the Black River canal. We have expended on this canal, in principal and interest, $2,221,002 31. No part of it is in use. It would now require, according to the most reliable estimates of engineers, about $436,740 96 to complete it, and open nearly one hundred miles of navigation into a secluded part of the state. Who can doubt that as a mere question of revenue, this canal should be finished, and the long deferred hopes of the people in that quarter realized.

What was the prospect and tacit promise held out to the people on the unfinished lines, when we entered upon, and prosecuted these works? Why, it was a language stronger than words spoken through the public organs, that they might adapt their private affairs to the state of things, when these great measures should be consummated. They did so, and we know the consequences to thousands and tens of thousands of our people.

Again, the Erie canal enlargement was begun about the same time, at the instigation of the people of almost our entire state. The most vigilant measures were taken to hasten its completion; all felt the necessity of thus accelerating the work, because we saw a numerous population in the west, daily increasing their numbers, pointing their public improvements towards this great thoroughfare, and we all knew that it would receive full employment the moment its capacity was made equal to the passage of their immense products.

Well, we have expended on the Erie canal enlargement, according to the report of the Commissioners of the Canal Fund, page 59, in principal and interest, $15,454,799 05. The most careful estimates, which at this day are believed to be much above the mark, for completing the whole enlargement according to the original plan, is less than 11 millions of dollars. Many plans to enlarge upon a more economical scale have been submitted, varying and reducing the cost to four and even to two millions. But I will consider the subject in reference to the original undertaking;—and here let it be observed that the whole, or nearly the whole, sum expended towards the enlargement is lost, unless the work is completed. Here, then, we have works which have cost the state $21,162,397, incomplete and useless, but which could be made valuable, according to the original design, by the gradual expenditure of about 12 millions more, and we have now a surplus income from the canals, over and above the interest on the debt, at the present time, as large as could be profitably expended annually, and which, in view of the constant increase, would, in a few years, complete the whole of these great works. Shall we progress ?

This issue has been much agitated, and has occasioned anxious suspense among the people of the state.

We owe it to ourselves, to the western states, and our own people, to settle this question. The peace and harmony of the state require it. The adaptation of the future business of the country should be arranged with reference to the state of things which must follow the final disposition of this momentous matter.

I know that on all these measures, notwithstanding our duty in the aggregate to represent the entire state, and act with reference to the interest of the whole, we cannot conceal from ourselves the fact developed every day, that there are such things as rival and sectional jealousies.

I know, much as it is to be regretted, that these evils are to be met and encountered; and I hope, before I close, to show most clearly, what are the advantages to be derived by the counties along the North River and Long Island. They are to be connected by navigation with the whole of western New-York and the country on the upper lakes; with Ohio, Mississippi, Missouri, and Illinois rivers; all navigable, and bordering on rich and fertile countries, following the borders of these waters on lines of demarkation of more than 10,000 miles. Is it nothing to be connected by intercourse with the mighty west, and have their transit to and from the Atlantic pass your doors ? Is there no commerce, direct or indirect, that can enrich your people by an interchange of commodities with a population so extensive in resources, and so variegated in their pursuits ?

It seems to me that such a connection cannot but be followed by vast and accumulating advantages.

The experience of the past is not to be disregarded. No part nor portion of these counties can say that their connexion with the west has not been of incalculable advantage. The river counties take their principal value from their proximity to, and connexion with the city of New-York. In proportion to the increase of that city is the increase of this value. And how has New-York been affected by these canals? Let facts answer the question.

Before the construction of the Erie and Champlain canals, the country which now supplies nine-tenths of the products to that city, through the canals, was almost entirely shut out. Of the 45 millions of dollars worth of property which came during last season on these canals to tide-water, nearly all of which reaches New-York, not a tithe of it could ever have reached that city but for the canals. Nor would the west have been able to purchase merchandise from New-York without a market for their own products. It was urged against the construction of the Erie canal, when that great measure was agitated, that it would ruin the east by bringing western products to overstock their market, and ruin eastern producers; and the city of New-York, through Tammany Hall, sent representatives to the capital to oppose the measure, and stop this imaginary calamity. But what was the effect when the measure was enforced in despite of New-York opposition? It was found that when the west were able to sell they were also able to purchase; and the city, which unwisely opposed the opening of new channels to connect her with the most productive and interesting portion of our country, found in ten years that this very measure had added 55 millions to the valuation of her real estate and doubled her population—and in twenty years it had been trebled: so that if New-York had paid the whole expense of the canal, she would have been the gainer by many millions.

These same representatives, among whom were their Ogden Edwards, their Sharps, their Hunters, their Ulshoeffers and Romains, then young and inexperienced, afterwards lived to see, and had the magnanimity to acknowledge their error; but then they had become too much enlightened to represent New-York, and were expelled from Tammany Hall. They have been succeeded from time to time by more inexperienced and impracticable representatives, down to the present moment, when we have a delegation (with a few honorable exceptions) sent on a similar errand, to impede the onward march of the prosperity of the state.

But we are now told from high authority, and in public documents, that the Erie canal needs no enlargement; that it is already of sufficient dimensions to bear all the transportation that can be furnished. Even if this were true, it would not, in my judgment, furnish sufficient argument against the enlargement.

We have already seen that, to complete the work, it would cost less than 11 millions of dollars. Say 11 millions. The interest on this sum, at 5 per cent., would be $550,000 a year.

By an estimate made by the state engineers, in 1840, it was ascertained that the enlargement, by reason of the increased size of boats, being three times the present dimensions, would require no more expense of traction than is required to trail boats of the present size on the present canal. And they demonstrated very satisfactorily that the enlargement would diminish the expenses of transportation at least ½ a cent a ton per mile. They then stated that the average movement per ton, of all the property carried on the canal was 154 miles. Since the great increase in the west, the average movement, or distance, articles are carried on an average, would probably be 250 miles; but, to keep within bounds, say 200. The whole number of tons of movement the past year was 1,977,565 tons. This would be a saving of one dollar a ton for all the products and merchandise carried on the canals, and would amount to $1,977,565. Deduct from this saving the interest expense as above, $550,000, and you have left a clear saving of $1,427,565. If, then, you were to add to your tolls the whole of the sum of $1,977,565, those who transport on the canal, the present quantity would be as well, indeed much better served, because the volume of the canal being enlarged, they would be free from the hindrances and crowds they now meet with, which is a drawback of at least ten per cent. on the profits of transportation. I mention this because everybody can understand it. But it will be found on a more careful investigation that, in comparison to the great and multiplied advantages of enlarging the canal, this consideration is of trifling moment.

It will be found by reference to the report of the Canal Commissioners of this year, page 10, that, notwithstanding the water in the canal has been much increased the last two years, and the boats much enlarged, the increase of lockages near the eastern termination of the Erie canal had been 7,200, or about 24 per cent.

It will be seen, also, that the number of tons carried on the canals has increased in the last two years 463,026 tons, and that the value of the products transported, has increased during the same time from $76,276,909 to $100,629,859. If we look back a few years we shall find evidence enough that this increase will be going on at nearly the same rate for a succession of years. The Canal Commissioners, last year in their report, page 10, and again this year, on pages 10 and 11, give strongly their opinion that the Erie canal is being already crowded with business beyond its capacity. These opinions come from men who are pledged to the stop policy, and therefore cannot be supposed to err in the direction of the increase. Even they, in a smothered and subdued tone, recommend an appropriation for enlargement. What has been the experience of the state on this subject? The increase of business thrown upon this canal has hitherto equalled the estimates of the most sanguine, and has been all the time in advance of their prediction. The western world is on the march with giant strides. Their streams, their improvements, all lead and conduct them into Lake Erie, from which they will find an outlet through this canal, if we afford them sufficient space for its passage. Though the amount fluctuates from year to year, that of a subsequent year frequently approximates half a million in advance of the preceding year, and then again falls off one or two hundred thousand dollars, and then again recovers, and goes ahead of previous years; yet in a succession of years the advance is sure, and falls but little below 10 per cent. a year on an average.

In contemplating the great west, its capabilities, its progress for a few years to come, and the sure abundance it will pour into our channels, if we give them space, the mind is lost in the immensity of its means to enrich our revenues and our commerce.

Lakes Erie, Huron, Michigan, and their connecting waters, are everywhere bounded by a most productive soil. They are bordered by more than two thousand miles of country, stretching out to an unknown extent. The upper Mississippi and the Ohio rivers, which will lead into Lake Erie, and thence to this canal, are bounded by countries equally extensive and fertile.

The states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, the best portion of Missouri, the whole of Iowa and Wisconsin, so soon as the constructing works are completed and the Erie canal enlarged, must all bring hither their abundant productions. The area of this territory consists of about 190 millions of acres, yielding, when cultivated, the most bountiful returns. Hitherto, the greater portion of their products have found an outlet through the valley of the Mississippi; but improvements are in progress and nearly completed, and will be entirely so before the Erie canal can be enlarged, that will naturally lead and conduct them into Lake Erie, ready to take their passage through our state.

The state of Ohio has a canal leading from Lake Erie, 300 miles, to Portsmouth on Ohio river, and is connected with the Pittsburgh canal, and two hundred miles of lateral navigation on the way; all of which are now constantly bearing their burthens to, and taking merchandise from, Lake Erie. Another canal, called the Erie and Wabash canal, passes through about 90 miles of Ohio, along the rich valley of the Maumee to the Indiana line, and then passes on through Indiana to the navigable waters of the Wabash. Connected with this canal are the Dayton and Miami extension canals, 200 miles in length, passing through the most settled parts of the state, from the Ohio river at Cincinnati, and intersecting the Erie and Wabash canal at Fort Defiance.

From the waters of the Wabash, another canal is in the course of construction, and will shortly be completed, to connect with the Ohio river at Evansville, through Terrehaute; thus forming a third connection between Lake Erie and that river, and conducting into that lake the products of nearly the entire states of Ohio and Indiana, and opening a channel, too, to the state of Kentucky.

If we turn from these great channels further west, and look out upon Lake Michigan, we find it bordered about 100 miles by the rich prairies of the state of Illinois, and 300 miles of the territory of Wisconsin, and 250 miles of the state of Michigan. Illinois ranks in size with the first states in the Union, and has a soil not exceeded in fertility by any. It presents facilities for settlement nowhere surpassed. Bounded 100 miles on Lake Michigan, and washed on its west and southwestern border, 600 miles by the Mississippi, and on its southeast by 200 miles of the Wabash. A canal of large dimensions from the waters of Lake Michigan extending one hundred miles to the navigable waters of the Illinois river, is now in a state of forwardness, and will be entirely completed the ensuing season. The Illinois river is navigable for large sized steamboats, and cuts the state diagonally from the intersection of the canal, to the waters of the Mississippi, just above the mouth of the Missouri—its course is 360 miles to St. Louis. It thus draws to Lake Michigan the whole of the upper Mississippi and the river Missouri; bringing with it the freight produced in the greater part of the state of Missouri, the whole of the state of Iowa, and the entire trade of Illinois.

The Illinois canal will be quite as important, and bear on its bosom more freight, than did the Erie canal in the early days of its completion; and its increase, judging from the capabilities of the immense region dependant on it, must equal, if not exceed, all we have experienced from the Erie canal. The territory of Wisconsin, settling perhaps as rapidly as any country on the globe ever did, with an enterprising people in the prime of life operating upon a most luxuriant soil, will very soon add an immensity to the accumulating amount of the western trade, that all these mighty channels will bear upon their waters into Lake Erie.

From this lake the Erie canal, if we give it dimensions, will be the natural outlet to the Atlantic. Indeed, we have hitherto seen but an inconsiderable portion of the immensity of trade which the mighty west is producing, and will produce and send forth. Less than one-third of the quantity she has produced has yet found its way to the Erie canal. Not one-third of what she can send, and will send, when the Illinois canal shall have been completed, and the Erie and Wabash canals shall have been perfected to meet these intersecting channels, has ever yet found it. The increase of population and consequent productions of this region too, is beyond all ordinary calculations. This population has doubled within the last ten years. The opening these extensive channels only facilitates and accelerates that increase. They have now over five millions—there is every reason to believe that within the next ten years it will again be doubled. In 1840, as appears by the census, there was raised within the limits of this territory, thus to be drawn into Lake Erie, 116,404,000 bushels of grain. An examination of the Patent Office statistics and other returns must satisfy any one, that it now exceeds 200,000,000. The amount of grain of all kinds, consumed by the United States, as appears by the last census, averaged 28 bushels to each person. Deduct for consumption 30 bushels to each soul on this territory, and you have left a surplus of 50,000,000 to be brought to these channels. The tolls, at the present rates, on this amount, will be.................................$3,620,000

If we allow the tolls on merchandise and articles which will be taken in return west over the canal, and which at this time exceeds one-third of the tolls on downward bound grain, and may be safely calculated at that rate in all time to come, it amounts to.............. 1,206,666

Making together the sum of...................$4,826,666

It will be remembered that this calculation is not prospective, but is estimated on the present basis of products, which, if the canal was enlarged, and the Illinois canal completed, would be floating through our state at this time. The increase of products and population in the west is to be added to this estimate.

Nor can this estimate be considered extravagant, if we test it by the fact that 1,500,000 people in the state of New-York, in 1841, whose business was within reach of the canals in the state, paid in tolls $1,350,000, and that the same ratio in the upper states would make the five millions there pay $4,500,000.

In view of this estimate, it is to be taken into consideration that the western people, with their freight, travel nearly the whole length of the Erie canal, or average at least 300 miles, while our own freight does not average over 150 miles. Whatever tests we adopt we shall find, if properly and truly made, the result will rather swell than reduce this estimate. Keeping the tolls out of view, the enlargement would diminish our expense of freight one-half; and this reduction would of itself greatly increase the quantity in our own state, and draw to this channel an immense amount from the other states. No country on the globe ever held a more enviable position. Boundless in resources of our own, we have a vast empire beyond, which stands ready to make us the reckoning-house and depot of all she produces and consumes. They stand at our door seeking for entrance, and if we refuse them a passage, and drive them to other points for admission, a few may exult in the folly and mischief, but we shall bring upon ourselves the scorn of our cotemporaries, and the opprobrium of posterity. And what have we arrayed against all these inducements to open our channels and take the profits of the transit, and the multiplied advantages of being a market for the boundless west? Why, we are told that if the products of the west are poured into our state, they will compete with our own, and surfeit our market. Vain, illusory infatuation!

Is any one weak enough to believe that the great west is to be locked up from the Atlantic, by our narrow, miserable policy? You might as well attempt to stop the flowing of the mighty Niagara. They will find the Atlantic, and meet us there with their products, through some other direction, if we refuse them a passage. The St. Lawrence is open, and British enterprise and capital are improving their channels. The Mississippi and Ohio flow on, and their waters are free, and their products will force their way in despite of the ravages of a tropical climate. Pennsylvania has opened channels through Nature's barriers, over the Allegany ridge. Maryland is pointing channels from the Atlantic through the same high range of mountains. It is true, we can furnish the best and most convenient outlet, but it is not the only one. It is then only a question for us to decide, whether we will avail ourselves of the advantages which Nature has given us, or leave others, by superior enterprise, to rob us of these rich privileges. Let no one be discouraged at our prospects—by the idle fear that our markets are to be surfeited by what the teeming west produces and sends forth; whether it comes through our channels to the Atlantic, or reaches the same point through another direction.

Every dollar's worth of products which the west sends to our markets, enables them to purchase and carry back a dollar's worth of something she finds at the east in return. It is a settled principle, that almost the entire surplus products of every country is consumed in some thing, which they pay for in market.

Your Atlantic cities—your interior villages, are to a very great extent; supported by this interchange. Manufacturers, merchants, artizans and the navigating interest, quadruple their numbers by western business; and in all time to come, you will find consumers at the east increasing, commensurate with the increase of what the west sends forth.

As many mouths can be furnished at the east as the west can feed, because they take the products of eastern labor, enterprise, and skill in return.

Another objection sometimes urged against our progressing with these great inland channels, is that the policy of the English government, acting upon Canada, opening broader, deeper, and a more convenient channel to the Atlantic, down the St. Lawrence, will, even if we enlarge our own, enable them to take the produce from, and merchandise to and from, the upper lakes, in defiance of our increased facilities. It is true, England, always alive to the interests of her people, and actuated by a liberal policy, has not been unmindful of the magnitude of the resources of the gigantic west; and she has been, and still is, enlarging her channels, and removing impediments. By the first of July, she will be able to freight a vessel of 400 tons burthen, and land her cargo at any port in the United States or in Europe; and with the present dimensions of the Erie canal; she will be able to deliver cargoes at New-York for less than they will cost through this channel. Nor would it be matter of regret, if we adhere to our present policy; for so soon as the Illinois canal is finished, the capacity of our canal will be altogether inadequate to its passage.

But the distance from Lake Erie to the Atlantic, through the St. Lawrence outlet, is over 1200 miles. Through the Erie canal it is only 500 miles. If properly enlarged, no outlet can be found which can compete with this channel. It brings you to New-York, one of the best harbors, and vastly nearer and more convenient to the markets of the world. England has now commenced the adoption of the free trade principle, and a law is introduced in accordance with it, into the Canada Parliament, to give all property a free passage through the province. We have adopted the same principle as to merchandise, and shall extend it to products. Here, then, will be a fair competition; and with our canal enlarged, nine-tenths of Canada products would be brought through our waters to New-York, to be shipped to England. Thus would the Canadas become our tributaries—just as we shall become theirs, if we lie idle and see them take it away, by affording superior facilities.

It has also been said, too, that the descending navigation of Ohio and Mississippi would be the natural outlet for western production, those rivers having natural and broad deep channels. But it must be remembered that all which comes from, or goes to markets, through these outlets, has to pass under the tropical sun. The average of flour that reaches the Atlantic through the northern channels is worth from 60 to 70 cents more than the same kind is worth at the same point, when brought by way of the outlet of the Mississippi. So of nearly all western products. Again, factorage, storage, lighterage, wharfage and cartage, are full 40 per cent. higher in the south than in the north. This advantage, when the canal is enlarged, will always overbalance the difference in transportation. The return cargoes will always take the channels of the downward bound, because they are on an average 70 per cent. less, and craft will not return empty.

Ours is the only gorge through the Alleghany mountains, between the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. All others between those extremes must climb over or cut through the high Alleghany ridge, running north and south, between those two rivers. Pennsylvania has already forced channels through this barrier; Maryland, with her Chesapeake and Potomac canal, has nearly reached the summit, and is progressing to Ohio river. But each of these are expensive forces against nature's impediment, and cannot compete with the enlarged Erie canal; and the question remains for us to settle, whether we will do our duty, foster our interest, enrich our people, and pour, for all time to come, countless millions into our treasury, which would be paid by our western brethren, and save our people taxation, or pursue the narrow, selfish policy which would stop this mighty flow of wealth into the state.

And what is the formidable objection that is raised against our pursuing this clearly obvious course of prosperity? We are told that there is a *policy*, called the *policy* of 1842,—a *law* of forty-two,—and this is the golden calf that is set up, which all must fall down and worship, or be cast, bound, into a political furnace of fire, there to suffer the penalty of their disobedience. It is called the *great*, the *masterly*, the *renowned* policy of '42, and is to be regarded in all time to come among the seven wonders of the world.

I shall, before I leave this subject, attempt to expose this ridiculous display of folly and wickedness, and show it as it really is; and if capable of perpetuity, send it down the current of time, among the abominations of kindred acts, and let it be placed with the decrees of Herod, and the edicts of the successive tyrants of the earth that have been born and lived to curse mankind.

Every member of the Legislature, before entering upon his Legislative duties, swears to support the Constitution of the United States, and the Constitution of the State of New-York. If we turn to page 24 of the red book, we shall there find, section 1, article 10, of the Constitution of the United States, which says: "No state shall pass any law impairing the obligation of contracts." Turn now to the 10th section of the law of '42, and read: "All further expenditures on the public works, now in the progress of construction, shall be suspended until the further order of the Legislature."

If we look into the reports of the Canal Board for that and the succeeding year, we shall find that under the authority of law, contracts had been made to more than ten millions of dollars, and were then subsisting with numerous individuals, to perform labor which they were bound to perform, and for which they had given surety. Their works were then progressing in an unfinished state, and when completed, the state was bound to pay them between two and three millions of dollars then in arrear. All of which this law abrogated and repudiated.

Here, then, were subsisting contracts. The parties solemnly bound; the contracting parties, the state of New-York and sundry citizens, and one of the contracting parties, by that law enacted that no more of those obligations on their part should be fulfilled. Here is no escape; the law so far impaired the obligation of those contracts as to strike them dead in the hands of those with whom they had been solemnly made, and that too, by a Legislature that prated more of state faith, than any other body of men ever did.

Well, take the red book again, and turn to page 52, in the 7th article and 10th section of the Constitution of this state, and you will there find, that a fund to be raised, called the Canal Fund, and afterwards called the Erie and Camplain Canal Fund, was solemnly set apart and pledged for the payment of the Erie and Champlain canal debt; and it is there provided, that "This fund shall not be diverted, at any time before the full and complete payment of the principal and interest of that debt." A fund had been provided as pledged in a law of the 15th of April, 1817, and as directed by the Constitution, and was nearly sufficient to extinguish the debt for which it was set apart when this law passed.

Now turn to the law of 1842, sections 4 and 5, and you will there find the commissioners of the canal fund authorized to borrow on the credit of the state about three millions and a half of dollars, and issue and sell for the same the stock of the state. Then turn to the 8th section, and you will find the commissioners of the canal fund are there authorized to take $600,000 from the Erie and Champlain canal fund, and substitute the same amount of state stocks thus authorized to be issued. In other words, they are authorized to take the money thus set apart and made sacred by the law of 1817, and by the Constitution itself, and substitute state promises to pay. Am I understood? The law of 1842 authorized the public officers to divert the Erie and Champlain canal fund to the amount of $600,000, which the Constitution they had just sworn to support said, should not be diverted.

Thus this law and its policy, and the varied constructions put upon it from time to time, and which are to be revered in all time to come, though it ruin the state, was most clearly and incontrovertibly a desecration of the Constitution of the United States, a desecration of the Constitution of this state, and a palpable violation of the obligation of contracts, and the most solemn pledge ever made to public creditors.

Am I wrong in this statement? Is there any escape from the position in which I have placed the authors and worshippers of that law?

I call on the honorable chairman of the canal committee, (Mr. Perkins,) who has grown grey, and spent a long life in the study and practice of the law, to answer me, and show, if he can, by his discriminating powers and legal acumen, how he can reconcile this law with the Constitution of the United States or this state. And if he cannot so reconcile it, to acknowledge frankly that it is a violation of both.

I call on the honorable chairman of the judiciary committee, (Mr.

Chatfield,) whose position pre-supposes he knows something of constitutional law and statutory constructions, to point out any avenue where the framers of that law can escape from the implication of having shamefully and openly violated and trodden down constitutional landmarks.

If they cannot, then I ask them to acknowledge the deed, and condemn its authors, and unmask their hypocrisy. I call on them at least to turn their attention to this point, and furnish us with their views. If they dare risk their reputation in a defence, let us have it. If they dare not, then let their silence be taken as evidence that the point is indefensible.

Then, again, this law comes to us laden with the sin of violated faith, and is the offspring of forsworn legislation; and shall we then be any longer deterred from exposing its real fathers, and showing to an abused and deceived public, its origin and its effects upon the state? I trust not; and I shall now attempt to show that other influences and other objects than hitherto allowed, brought forth this image of partizan worship.

That it had not its origin, as its title imports, "to preserve the credit of the state," is clear from the contemporaneous acts and manifestations of its authors. Shortly before the passage of this law, one of the state officers made and published a report, in which he declared, "that there were millions of outstanding debts against the state, which the people were under no legal or moral obligation to pay." This document was spread far and wide, as if done with an express design to impair state credit. Another of the state officers, who has been one of the nursing fathers of this law, the summer previous to its passage, I suppose "to preserve the credit of the state," published a table, showing the debt of the state at upwards of twenty millions, and the same page gave the annual expense of the state government at $918,725, and the revenues of the state at $451,790. This document, too, was published far and wide through this country, and went to Europe and was published there, leaving it to be inferred that we had a debt of over $20,000,000, and the interest pressing annually upon us, and less than half income enough to meet our current expenses; while he judiciously kept out of sight the revenue of the canals, the tolls on which, that very year, amounted to $1,987,807 85.

It will be recollected, too, that the Legislature which passed the law of '42, came into power that year on a political revolution of the state; that in consequence of the scarcity of money, the Comptroller, who was turned out of office by the incoming party, informed the Legislature, that temporary loans of about three millions of dollars, for which six per cent. stocks had been issued, but which was then below the current rate of interest, would become due in March, and that if seven per cent. could be authorized by the Legislature, the temporary holders of that stock would be willing to convert it into a loan for years. Well, this Legislature refused to pass the law, and the new Comptroller, after he came into office, informed the holders, that the temporary loan would not be paid at maturity—and this was another method taken "to improve the credit of the state;" and yet this same law authorized the loan of three and a half millions of dollars at seven per cent. interest, to pay these same temporary loans, after they were dishonored, which they had refused to do before. These facts show the spirit with which this famous law was brought forth.

But this stop law of 1842 never had its origin in a desire to pay the debts of the state. Nor were those who passed the law its prime movers. Other and very different influences were at work which produced this calamitous measure. Four banks in Albany, at a time when they had not a dollar of spare capital—when their business customers were turned away from their counters with perfectly good paper, which they could not discount, and their customers were being every day ruined, purchased of the state a million and a half of dollars worth of the six per cent. stocks, for which they were unable to pay any faster than they could raise the money on the bonds. They had hypothecated them with various banks and capitalists in the city of New-York, for temporary loans. They were called on to pay, and pressed for the money. They had used them in part to sell to the Safety Fund Banks, for which they had extorted high premiums, while they were below par, receiving over-issues of their bills as security; and these necessitous country banks had thrown them into the hands of street brokers in Wall-street, to be hawked about until they were reduced from 15 to 30 per cent. below par. By this means they ruined the safety fund and destroyed a most excellent system of banking, and involved the officers of those banks in frauds, and false returns to deceive the commissioners. Nevertheless, the state had received most of their pay for these bonds, and were able to pay the interest, and those who held them for bona fide investment, were not harmed by their temporary depression in Wall-street. They could receive the full amount of interest as it became due, and when the pressure was a little over, and the fright created by threatened repudiation had passed away, their bonds would have been sure to again rise to par.

But these banks, and their coadjutors and pledgees in Wall-street, in hot haste to realize a high price for them, and make a speculation, foresaw that if they could stop the public works, and stop a farther supply of stocks, the market would soon absorb those on hand, and the demand would soon be so great, that they might enrich themselves by the rise. The scheme was concocted, and at it they went. And the distinguished reputed author of the law of '42 had about as much to do with projecting the measure, "as the fellow who fancied he played on the organ, when he only blew the bellows."

To make this law more acceptable to the state officers, a system was devised in it, called a sinking fund, by which from five to fifteen hundred thousand dollars would be made to accumulate at a time, waiting for state bonds that were to mature years ahead, to become payable, and in the meantime to keep the funds in such banks as they chose, or where they chose, or to purchase stocks at such premium as they pleased, and thus bring the whole train of bankers and brokers in the state, cap in hand, to receive their favors and preferences. While these funds lay in their hands, it will be seen that they could use them in buying and selling state stocks, ad libitum, and at such premiums as they chose; in buying and selling bank stocks, and, in fact, doing almost anything which a Wall-street broker can do with his funds.

If we turn to Vol. 1st, Revised Laws, Chapter 8, Title 3, Sections 11, 12, and 14, and Part 1, Chapter 9, Title 8, Section 13, page 172, and Title 1, Chapter 9, sections 24 and 25, we shall find substantially all these brokerage powers conferred on the Comptroller and the Commissioners of the Canal Fund. And we shall find, also, on looking through the multitude of statutes relating to finance and canals, that there are numerous other powers interlarded, to make more complete these general powers.

Hence, we find, on looking over the history of the passage of this famous law, that the chairman of the finance committee went into the House with his report, armed with letters and recommendations of what was ostensibly his own scheme, drawn from one end of Wall-street to the other, written by those very financiers who were standing behind the curtain and pulling the wires for this puppet to dance, to the tune of his fancied immortality. Thus was a state Legislature cajoled, wheedled, and deceived into the passage of a law, which desecrated the Constitution, violated the public faith, spread ruin and dilapidation through the rich and flourishing portions of the country.

The effects of this measure were more sensibly felt than is in the power of man to describe. Contracts to more than ten millions of dollars had been solemnly entered into, and were in every state of progress. About $2,500,000 worth of work, as near as has ever been ascertained, remained to be done to complete the same.

This law required an instantaneous abandonment. If a stone was half-dressed, or a lock half-laid, no matter what its condition, the workman must drop his tools, and leave all to sink back into dilapidation, decay, and ruin.

But there were more than four hundred contractors for these extensive operations. Some had contracted with others to furnish materials, and do the work to completion, and they were bound by their contracts. Others had hired clerks, agents, and operatives for times which had not expired; other works were underlet, which were not completed; materials prepared to put in; timber shaped and provided; stone cut, and marked and placed; cement provided, and the thousand different materials all prepared and preparing, and in every state of progress, lay in all directions. As the traveller passed along the canals he would ask himself, what folly, what madness had seized the minds of the public councils, that they should thus cause such wanton waste and ruin?

Did any one live in the vicinity of locks, his property was sure to be covered over with dressed, and half-dressed, and undressed stone, weighing from one to five tons each.

At Lockport alone, more than one hundred acres of village lots, mostly wanted for building, and have been for the last six years, were covered over with these stone, all cut and fitted, and marked, ready to be laid in the second tier of locks. Looking down from these masses of stone, you can see a deep chasm, about six hundred feet long—a yawning gulf, dug out for lock pits—to receive them. Looking below, or above, you may see a fleet of boats, as far as the eye can reach, detained, averaging an hour each, waiting for a passage; because, with a single tier of locks, you are obliged to lock first two hours one way, and then two hours the other.

If you travelled up and down these canals in the fall of 1842, you would see thousands of people, who had erected their shanties on their borders, and were feeding their families with the fruits of their labor on the works, packing up their scanty effects in disappointment and despair, seeking another home, and other means of subsistence, they knew not where. These people had been seduced from a foreign land, by notices and publications, to which functionaries had lent their names, telling them that here they would find sure and steady employment, and a good return in wages for years to come. More than 12,000 people were thus broken up and disturbed in an inclement season, and their sufferings, so complicated, varied, and severe, as to be past any description. They awakened the charity of the people where they passed; but their numbers were too great for individuals to relieve, while they were finding a home and subsistence in Canada and the Western States.

This law made no provision, nor did that Legislature make any, for paying damages to contractors; and the consequence was, that before they ever did get any such relief, nearly all of them were ruined, and had ruined thousands of others, who yielded to this pressure of public injustice and fraud.

But, sir, no tongue can tell the immense mischiefs that ensued from this wicked law; and, were I to attempt it, I could not describe the half. The blow fell first and heaviest on contractors; then on sub-contractors; and all who relied on them for the fulfilment of engagements. And the last and most distressing was the case of thousands and tens of thousands of suffering poor.

Nor were the severities of this law at all necessary. If the Legislature had provided for the temporary loans, as they should have done, five hundred thousand dollars a year would have kept along the contracts of that and the succeeding years; and these contracts, which would not have exceeded two and a half millions, might have been now finished, the damages paid, and which must be paid for breaches, amounting, in my opinion, to full half this sum, before we get through, would have all been saved.

But all these mischiefs have been done, and it now becomes us to turn our attention to improving and completing the works, and repairing the injury thus done. That we can do this without a tax and without an increase of our present amount of debt, is very clear. To do so we have only to pay the interest, with our present income, and apply the surplus of $1,173,301, which I have before shown to exist; and even if we deduct from that surplus $200,000 to pay the General Fund, we have then over $900,000; so that we have ample and reliable means, certain prospects of success, and no intelligent man doubts that our whole debt might be extinguished nearly or quite as soon, if we complete the enlargement with all possible expedition, as by letting it remain in its present state. The most comfortable reflection we have about this is, that the whole would be paid in a few years, by receipts of tolls from the upper states.

It is a mistaken notion to suppose that these works are justly indebted to the General Fund. It is true the Comptroller makes them so, in a statement he has made in his report, page 68; but by what rule of just reckoning does he arrive at this result? He takes first the auction duties paid into the Canal Fund before the year 1836, when they were diverted to the General Fund. The amount he puts down at $3,592,000, and makes no allowance for the increase which the canal has made to that fund, by opening the western world to New-York. If we were to make a just deduction for that increase, and a just allowance for what the canal has added, all of which has gone into the General Fund the last ten years, he would find, on settling the account, there would be no balance against the canal on account of the auction duties.

Another fund charged to the Canal Fund, claimed as belonging to the General Fund, is the salt duties prior to 1836, since which time it has gone into the General Fund. This the Comptroller makes $2,045,458. To make apparent the justice of charging the canal with the salt duties, the Comptroller deems it necessary to keep out of sight a few facts which should be taken into consideration.

In the year 1817, the amount of salt duties was $2,426. This was the year they were taken into the Canal Fund, and the duties were increased from 3 to 12½ cents a bushel; and this duty was all paid by people living in the vicinity of the canal, and the increase was acquiesced in, because they knew it would be applied to open a navigable channel to their country. The limited amount consumed brought but a small sum into the Treasury; but the first year the canal was opened to Utica, at the head of Mohawk navigation, it rose to £48,000. This rise was occasioned by the means of exportation which the canal afforded, and the facilities it furnished for obtaining fuel, which was always allowed to be carried free of toll.

The increased duties were as much due to the canal as the tolls were, having been entirely produced by the canal. And the amount of salt duties which has gone into the General Fund, the last ten years, has been five times as much as if that fund had enjoyed the salt duties without the canal.

The four millions of dollars received from the General Government, called the United States Deposite Fund, which came from sales of western lands, was entirely the product of the canal; for without the Erie canal there would have been no surplus. This canal opened a passage to the Western States, and produced such rapid settlements, that receipts from lands swelled up this surplus.

The Canal Fund has also received from the General Fund the following since the system began.

That is,

Steamboat tax	$73,509
Sales of state lands	103,755
Of the mill tax	285,563
Making in all	$452,827

Whilst the Canal Fund has paid unto the General Funds of the state, for the support of Government, $2,337,602, including what is reserved for the year 1846. Thus, it is seen, that the canals have not been a charge on Government, but have, in truth, contributed a large balance to its support.

And here, let me add, that though this famous law of 1842 professed to tax the people to pay the canal debt, only $280,503 have ever been applied to the canals, or canal debts, under that law; and yet more than double that amount has been taken since its passage, from the Canal Fund, for the support of Government.

Thus I have attempted to show, that this canal interest is by far the most important interest in the state; that it brings incalculable wealth and business to our people; has already greatly enriched our revenue; that it should be fostered and protected, and increased with the increase of the country. I have, moreover shown, I think, that it has always supported itself; is capable of discharging its own debt; and, if finished and enlarged, will bring boundless and ever-increasing revenue into the Treasury, and make this state the great mart of the western world.

I have shown, also, that we could advance it to completion, and I may say perfection, without any increase of debt; and when finished, the debt will be a trifling affair, in comparison to its value and income, and that this income will principally be poured into our lap by the Western States.

It remains only for us to disengage it from the party thraldom with which it is now bound and fettered; to extricate it from the serpentine folds of the evil spirit of faction, which have wound around, and attempted to strangle it. This, if I am any judge of public indications, the people will before long attempt, by a force at once irresistible and prevailing.

MANUFACTURES OF CONTINENTAL EUROPE,

AND THE PRESENT WAGES OF LABOR OF EVERY KIND IN THAT QUARTER OF THE WORLD.

As very little is known in this country of the manufactures of Continental Europe, we have taken much pains to inform ourselves, not only of their present condition and progress, but also the state of the working classes—the wages paid them, and their physical and moral condition.

It has been one object of this periodical, to enlighten the working men of the United States, upon this, to them, all-important subject.

Deeply concerned as they are in this matter, and important as it has always been, that they should appreciate the value of our free institutions, which were formed principally for their benefit; it is *now* a matter of almost life and death to them, to understand fully the distinction between the condition of the laborers of Europe and themselves.

It is high time they should know what it is, that is to be purchased abroad cheaper than it can be had in this country, that they may justly appreciate the evil to be produced by the Tariff of 1846.

It is not cotton, nor wool, nor iron ore, that is cheaper abroad than in this country, *but it is labor.* The free citizens of the United States cannot consent to live on mere vegetables, lodge in hovels, and drag out a miserable physical existence, without education and moral culture of any kind; and therefore, Mr. Walker, and those who act with him, have framed a law, and shameful to relate, an American Congress has been drilled into its passage, to import this foreign cheap labor, in vastly increased quantities, while at the same time, cotton, wool, and iron, come along with it. Some of the cotton thus imported comes from British India, the wool is purchased from European farmers, and the iron from European miners.

This is the Tariff law of 1846! But we are wandering from our particular object, which is to show forth this foreign labor, as it exists on the continent of Europe, and we commence with Belgium. Our readers will have an opportunity of comparing the condition of the free labor of this country with the cheap labor of the old world.

The cotton manufacture in Belgium is said to represent a capital of 60,000,000 francs. Gand, Malines, and that district is the locality of the cotton industry; Gand being the head quarters of the spinners. The produce of the looms amounted, two years ago, to about a million and a half pieces of ginghams or coarse cotton and calicoes, and 400,000 pieces of printed cottons. An increase of about 20 per cent. has taken place since.

The number of spindles in the cotton mills of Belgium, just before the revolution, amounted to 300,000 in Gand, and about 100,000 out of Gand. A diminution took place after that event, to which Mr. Baines alludes in his work on the cotton trade, p. 526, and the spindles in activity were reduced by at least 25 per cent., up to the first of January, 1835, when 301,145 only were in activity. At the present time, the number employed exceeds 400,000. The steam engines represent about 1,000 horse power.

M. de Bast, of Gand, is of opinion, that though the labor of individuals is cheaper in Belgium than in England, the advantage has been greatly overrated; because, first, the Belgian work people work like mere automata, mechanically, whereas, he believes, in England, they are far more skilled and interested in the art, and are able to explain the machinery, which they are not in Belgium. Again, he is of opinion, that owing *hitherto* to the decided inferiority of Belgian to English machinery, many more persons are needed in Gand than in Manchester to perform the operations which come in the class of preparations. This disadvantage is, however, on the point of being forthwith entirely removed; and new carding and drawing machinery, modelled on a combination of the best and most recent English inventions, is now in progress for more than one of the largest mills of Belgium.

Mules are almost universally preferred to throstles, because requiring less power. They calculate that one horse power drives 500 mule spindles, but only 200 throstle spindles; and, as the object with them is the greatest possible produce, quality being a secondary consideration, they seldom adopt throstles at all.

In one mill in Gand, where we took an exact account of the produce, it was found that each spindle produced 30 decagrammes per 72 hours of No. 30's; that is $\frac{33}{50}$ths of an English lb., equivalent to 19$\frac{4}{5}$ hanks per week!

The drum wheel of a Gand cotton mill makes 150 revolutions, whilst in England the drum makes but 130.

Mons. de Bast states, that they frequently buy their cotton at Liverpool, in order to have a better choice. He complained bitterly of being unable hitherto to obtain a foreign market for their cotton twist, but he relied confidently on doing so when their new machinery was completed, which, he expects, will give an immense impulse to their trade.

Flax forms one of the main sources of Belgian industry. The two Flanders produce alone, the value of 30,000,000 to 40,000,000 francs per annum. The damasks of Courtrai, and many other towns, are too widely celebrated to require mention. Of common linen cloth, 750,000 pieces, value about 100,000,000 francs, were sold in 1836 in the different market towns in Belgium.

The spinning of flax by power is engaging the active attention of the Belgian capitalists, as well as of other nations. Mr. Cockerill, the late iron king, of Liege, and who engaged in nearly every department of industry in existence, had a very prosperous flax spinning mill at Liege, of which the engine was of 90 horse power. Two more are building at Gand. The English have not the same advantages for the purchase of this raw material as they enjoy in the cotton trade. Not only do France and Belgium produce the finest flax within sight of their rising mills, but the river Lys is invaluable for its bleaching qualities. The flax industry, first and last, employs 400,000 persons in Belgium.

Next to the linen, the cloth trade is the most lucrative of the textile manufactures of Belgium.

A capital of at least 80,000,000 is embarked in this branch; and about 14,000,000 are yearly expended in the purchase of foreign wool; the indigenous wool barely reaching a figure of 200,000 francs.

Verviers is the seat of the plain cloth manufacture, in which Mr. Cockerill was much interested.

A report from the Chamber of Commerce, in 1833, represented the workmen employed there in the cloth manufacture to amount to 40,000; the annual production was calculated at 100,000 pieces of cloth, of a value of nearly 25,000,000 francs, or £1,000,000 sterling.

In 1812, the trade and population of Verviers amounted to not one-half the present amount. The looms were one-half, but the produce has been tripled.

There is a very large carpet manufacture at Tournai, of 90 looms, where every description of carpeting is made. The wages average three francs per day for the good weavers, and 2 francs 25 cents for the second class. Seven-eighths of the whole produce are exported. The total length of carpeting produced annually averages 120,000 metres, or about 1,573,333 yards.

Mr. Smith, of Manchester, recently gave the following correct account of the extraordinary cheapness of the Saxon hosiery, which we have been at some pains to verify:

"Saxony already manufactured as large an amount of cotton hosiery as Great Britain; and she exported 1,500,000 doz. pairs, while the export from England was only 430,000 pairs. Saxony exported to the

United States about as much cotton hosiery as England exported to the whole world; and she not only exported to other foreign countries, but also to Great Britain. He had in his possession a beautiful specimen of Saxon made cotton hosiery, (a white cotton open-worked glove for ladies' wear,) such as he understood could not be made in England; and for these gloves a hosier in Manchester gave 3s. 6d. per dozen pairs. He exhibited another beautiful specimen of hosiery, a stocking of foreign manufacture, with one of similar quality, of English manufacture. The latter, a hosier at Nottingham told him, was there worth 6s. a dozen pairs; the price of the Saxon article at Hamburg was 3s. 2d. per dozen pairs. He next showed other beautiful specimens of stockings of a better quality, both Saxon and English manufacture; the price of the latter at Nottingham being 23s. a dozen, and of the former at Hamburg 12s. 4½d. a dozen. With such facts as these before them, would any gentleman say that foreign competition was a farce?"

WAGES IN BELGIUM, AND PHYSICAL CONDITION OF THE ARTISANS.

But the main sinew of Belgian prosperity is unquestionably her iron. We shall commence, therefore, with the wages paid in the various departments of the iron manufacture.

The wages at Seraing near Liege, are as follows:—The designers (dessinateurs) receive from 1500 to 2000 francs[*] per annum. Workmen earn from 3 to 4 fr. per day; the overseer has a fixed salary. Founders earn from 4 to 5 fr. per day. Nail makers, chiefly very young men, earn from 3 to 4 fr. Furnace and boiler makers earn from 4 to 5 fr.: this work is very laborious. The forgers earn various wages, from 2.50 to 6 frs. In the higher skilled and more laborious departments, wages vary from 5 to 10 fr. per day. Model makers earn 2 fr. 40 cent. Leather workers from 2 to 3 fr. per day. Turners in wood, brass, and iron, earn, for the most part, from 2 to 3 fr. per day, and the older ones double. Fitters and filers earn from 2 to 3 fr. per day, and divide a perquisite of 70 florins according to the work they have done.

The average wages of the adult workmen are about 3 fr. The ordinary hours of labor are 11 per day. The *miners* gain as follows:

Superintendents	2 fr. 30 cent.	per day.
First class workmen	2 fr. 25 cent.	do.
Second class workmen	2 fr. 10 cent.	do.
Youths	1 fr. 90 cent.	do.
Youths under 12	1 fr. 30 cent.	do.

Age of admission is 10 years. Period of work, usually six hours per day.

N. B. The food of these workmen is usually pork, and bacon, and potatoes. Coffee and gin are their ordinary beverage. The workmen on the surface earn from 2 fr. to 2 fr. 20 cent.

"The two pound loaf, of the quality of bread usually eaten by the lower classes at Brussels, costs 32 cent., and it would probably be less dear elsewhere. The expenses of living at Liege are a little more than two-thirds of what they are at Brussels; but this may be attributed to the extreme cheapness of vegetables, which form a principal article of consumption for the poor.

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[*] The franc, (fr.) is nearly 20 cents; the centime (cent.) being the 1-100th of a franc, will equal two mills.

In cotton spinning factories, the chief of which are at Ghent, the general rate of wages are—

For adult men, spinners, &c., from......2 fr. 50 cent. to 3 fr. per day.
For apprentices from 12 to 16...............75 cent. to 1 fr. do.
For girls.................................75 cent. to 1 fr. do.

The following are the rates of wages paid at Mons. de Bast's factory:

135 weavers were paid 1800 fr. per week for 14 hours work per day, making an average of 13 fr. 33 cent., each per week.

In the spinning mill 143 persons are paid 1400 fr. per week, making an average of 9 fr. 79 cent. per week.

A good spinner will earn 24 fr. per week, out of which he has 7 fr. 50 cent. to pay to his piecer; spinners are paid 23 to 25 cent. (2¼d. to 2½d.) per kilogramme, 2⅕ lb.

" I have," says another cotton spinner, " several spinners who employ an equal number of little girls, though the number will soon be augmented. These spinners gain about 17 fr. per week, out of which they have to pay 2 or 3 fr. to those children who assist them.

In the linen spinning factories the men are paid at the rate of 1 fr. 35 cent. for every 12 hours work. No women are as yet employed in these factories, though the want of more hands will probably introduce them ere long. The children employed are about one quarter the number of the men.

In the woollen spinning factories the wages are nearly the same as in the cotton factories.

In the dyeing establishment of forty work people, the following were the wages:

5 earned 2 fr. 20 cent. per day,	15 earned 1 fr. 80 cent. per day
5 do. 1 fr. 60 do. do.	5 do. 1 fr. 40 do. do
5 do. 1 fr. 20 do. do.	5 do. 0 fr. 80 do. do.

No females are employed in these works.

The following is a summary of the rates of labor in town and country, in the other chief arts and trades:

Trades.	Town Wages.		Country Wages.		Hours usually worked.
	fr.	ct.	fr.	ct.	
Masons, Carpenters, and Blacksmiths,	2	5	1	60	11½
Day-laborers,	1	35			11½
Saddlers,	2	25			
Wheelwrights,	2	25			
Compositors	3	0			
Lithographic Printers,	5	0			
Cabinet Makers,	3	0			
Bleachers,	.		2	0	16 in summer.
Tailors and Shoemakers,	2	50	1 or with food	60 75	11 to 12
Sawyers,	3	25			
Forgers,	6	0			
Coach Painters,	2	25			
Paviers,	1	80			
Laborers at Canal wharfs	1	70			
Miners			2	50	10

Agricultural laborers are paid as follows :—

Provinces.	Conditions.	Men.		Women.	
		fr.	centimes	fr.	centimes
Brabrant,*	with food	0	63	0	31
Westpellier	without food	0	91	0	80
West Flanders,	with food				
	without food	1	20	0	80
Liege,	with food	1	18	0	88
	without food				
Luxemburg,	with food				
	without food	1	0	0	85

The wages of agricultural laborers vary considerably in East Flanders; they are still lower than in West Flanders, where there are more factories. In Liege and Namur, *in the heart of the manufacturing district, agricultural wages are nearly double what they are in the purely agricultural provinces.* In the province of Liege it appears that owing to the great demand for hands in the coal and iron works, farm labourers receive more wages with board than they receive in Luxemburg without it.

The food of the working classes, not only of Belgium, but of all the countries of the continent, consists of vegetables; meat is not the food of the working classes of Belgium, it is the relish used with food.—The Italian eats maccaroni; the staple food of the French and Germans is bread or cabbage; of the Irish, potatoes, (and the consumption of potatoes, as a main article of sustenance, is by no means confined to Great Britain, but is rapidly spreading over the continent.) It is a beautiful fiction to describe John Bull as eating beef. If "John Bull" means two-thirds of the population, John Bull is living on vegetable diet; and not above one-third of him is nourished by meat. The Indians eat rice; the West Indians, yams and bread tree; the Africans, dates; in fact, a *fraction,* and that a very small one, of mankind eat animal food.

The workmen employed in the iron works of the Hainault, Liege, and the machine making factories both of Seraing, Bruxelles, Ghent, &c., live on potatoes and vegetables, *with a piece of meat among them* for dinner regularly; coffee of chiccory; and on the Sundays, spirits in moderate quantity. These are the best paid.

The workmen who come under the second class are the masons, blacksmiths, carpenters, &c. of the towns, the woollen factors and domestic weavers, who live nearly in the same manner, but consume either a less portion of meat, or take it only three or four times a week.

The cotton weavers and factory workmen do not live so well. Potatoes and vegetable soup form their chief food, with bread half rye and half wheat; coffee, and occasionally a glass of spirits, and commonly brown beer, are their beverage. This beer is particularly bad—pure malt, hops, water and salt, ill-proportioned and execrably boiled.

With regard to the prices of food, an able-bodied man will support himself on 7d. sterling per day in Belgium, in the country. Bread, *such as laborers eat*, is about 1¼d. sterling per lb. in the country; other food in proportion.

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* N. B. Shepherds earn 54 francs a year, their board, and thirty sheep, or 272 francs without sheep.

The price of grain was as follows, per hectolitre, or 22 gallons, equal to 2¾ bushels.

	1834.	1835.	1836.
Wheat, white	13 fr. 19 centimes	14 fr. 3 centimes	15 fr. 56 centimes.
Wheat, red	14 fr. 53 cent.	15 fr. 8 cent.	
Rye	8 fr. 41 cent.	9 fr. 4 cent.	10 fr. 5 cent.
Oats	5 fr. 90 cent.	6 fr. 57 cent.	
Potatoes	3 fr. 21 cent.	3 fr. 90 cent.	

FREE TRADE, AND THE NEW TARIFF.

So much is said about the imaginary state of the world, which is implied under the term "Free Trade"—it has become so prevalent a subject of conversation by those who have no knowledge whatever on the subject of trade of any kind, that we are disposed to devote some little time to such a view of this matter, as may possibly throw some light on a much abused topic.

We say then, again, that real Free Trade between different nations is *imaginary*. It is so, because it does not *now* exist, *never has* existed, and we shall contend never *can* exist, in the sense in which the term is commonly used.

If a nation consist of provinces, or parts, its people being all of the same habits, manners and customs, and governed by the same laws, they may have a perfectly free intercourse, without subjecting the commodities of each to the payment of any customs dues to the other, as is the case with the different states of this Union—and this we call a real Free Trade—and such a trade exists in some other parts of the world. But wherever it does exist, it is the *home trade*, and is as wholly different from foreign trade, as the laws, habits and regulations of one nation or people, are different from the laws, habits and regulations of other countries.

The people of the United States are one people—so far as trade is concerned; no duties or excises are charged in any one state upon the produce, goods, wares, or merchandises of any other; the privileges of the citizen are the same, and to Congress is alone committed the power "to regulate commerce with foreign nations among the several states, and with the Indian tribes"—the words here quoted are the very words of part of the 8th section of the 1st article of the Constitution, and it is this power that makes us, as we have said, one people. It was not so under the Confederation—under that instrument—each state had the right to levy what duties their several legislators chose upon foreign merchandise; and an appeal to the record of the times shows that this produced great embarrassments in commerce.

It is rendered unnecessary here to occupy space with extracts to prove this. Two facts in this connexion we may state, namely—1st. That before the adoption of the Constitution, foreign imports paid in Pennsylvania a duty of two and a half per cent., while in New-Jersey they were admitted free—and large portions of foreign goods were entered at Burlington, New-Jersey, and clandestinely carried across the Delaware, without paying the duty, into Pennsylvania; and secondly, that some one or more states enacted laws to protect their industry.

It needs not that we should go into an argument to show, that the Free Trade which exists among the states of this Union, is, as we have said, *a home trade.* The answer to the question, of whether it operates equally upon all the states, or, in other words, is equally beneficial to all? is not, however, so obvious. The inquiry may well be made, whether the planting states, as their industry is at present occupied, so far as it is without manufactures, are not suffering from the fact that their being entirely confined to the raising of agricultural productions disqualifies them for a free trade with the free states. Certain it is, that they are not advancing as rapidly in their prosperity as they might advance, if they manufactured for themselves to a greater extent. Doubtless, the fact of nearly one million of their working hands being in a state of slavery, has no small influence in retarding their progress. An entire free population must always produce a greater amount of value from its labor, than one where labor is principally performed by slaves. The reasons for this are abundant; more particularly of latter years, from the great assistance derived from the advancement of human knowledge. We are not disposed to go into any invidious comparisons on this delicate subject; having no desire to moot the question of slavery further than is necessary to show its tendency to keep down productive value, in a population mixed up with it, below the value of one entirely free.

But although this will always be the case, we apprehend the southern states of this Union are more disqualified from keeping pace with their sister states, from the want of a diversity of pursuit. This it is which excites their jealousy against manufactures. That this is so, is proven by the very well-known truth—that wherever manufactures have been established within their limits, such jealousy not only subsides, but an entire contrary feeling prevails. Witness Maryland, Louisiana, Kentucky, and some parts of Virginia and North Carolina.

We say then, that even favorably situated as are these southern states, having three of the best agricultural staples in the world, they cannot carry on a free trade without disadvantages. They wilfully, so far as they disclaim all idea of manufacturing, add greatly to the clogs which slavery, undoubtedly, carries along with it. Many of them will not even vary their culture, but still adhere to cotton, notwithstanding that the great increase in its production produces little or no increase on the whole pecuniary amount produced from it.

It has been often shown that they are standing much in their own light in this respect; and they may be assured, that if they feel annoyed from the fact of their retardation in the general march of the age, it is not from any tax they pay upon the consumption of domestic or foreign manufactures, but from the causes named. A free trade with Europe would be vastly more to their injury, than the system of protection which has just been destroyed.

But to return to the subject of "Free Trade" for the world. If "Free Trade" mean anything, it must mean an unrestricted intercourse throughout the world, without the payment of any duties. The moment any country demands customs dues of any kind, or to any amount, all idea of Free Trade, so far as that country is concerned, ceases. Now we can hardly suppose there is any man so wholly unacquainted with the nature and condition of the various nations of the earth, as to believe, for a moment, that such a system *can ever* be adopted. We shall assume this as incontrovertible. It is impossible, from the simple fact, that all nations can never be brought to adopt it. Take for instance the United States—is there to be found one man so ignorant, as to believe that the duties on foreign goods can ever be taken off, and our revenue raised by direct taxation? We ask this question, well-knowing that the answer must be in the negative. But this is not all. To have real "Free Trade," the navigation laws of the whole world must be changed —all preferences to the trade of the colonies of all nations with the mother country must be abolished! There are innumerable other reasons why no such measure can ever be adopted, as regards the United States; but we shall name only one other, and that is, that Europe can and will supply itself abundantly with grain of all kinds— the grain producing countries always having a surplus much greater than will ever be needed by England, the only one of them liable to short crops, and the middle and western states have little else to export. Free Trade, in its unrestricted sense, being then utterly impossible and impracticable, each country *must* and *will* continue to do, as they do *now*, legislate on the subject of duties on foreign merchandise, in the manner best calculated to develope the resources of each.

We defy the advocates of the so-called "Free Trade" to point out a country on the whole globe, which does not shape its course in this respect, with a view to the fostering and protection of its own industry. So fully and completely is this the established custom throughout the commercial world, that such a thing as "Free Trade" would never be heard of, were it not the policy of England to keep up the farce, with a view to push her manufactures into every foreign port, where her vast commercial marine penetrates—and where she cannot do so with her own vessels, she uses those of other nations.

Her greatest market for manufactured goods is the United States. Nay! her greatest rival in manufactures, in navigation, and the arts, is this country. She watches us closely, and sees with a jealous eye our rising importance in the scale of nations; and as any attempt to check our progress by her army or navy are hopeless—nothing is left her, but to entrap us into what is called the Freedom of Trade. Propose to her real "Free Trade," namely, the abolition of all customs dues, the abrogation of her navigation laws, of all her colonial restrictions, and she would be the last nation on earth that could or would come into it. No! the Free Trade she desires is, to levy precisely what duties suit her convenience, upon the great articles of distilled spirits, teas, coffee, tobacco, sugar, wines, timber, on which she raises £19,000,000, or $95,000,000, and she will then readily hold out the idea of freedom of trade on any of the small articles of which she never imports any,—and on the raw materials she needs to foster and sustain her manufactures, of which she exports about $250,000,000. Possessing two islands, not larger than three of our largest states, wholly without the great raw material of cotton; deficient in that of wool; having an abundance of only coal and iron; her population of about 28,000,000; from her immense capital, great part of which is fictitious—as we have shown at page 1142, volume 2, of this work—with a national debt of $4,000,000,000, the interest of which, is $136,200,000, all of which must be annually paid. In this situation she actually exports more than twice as much as the United States, with about two-thirds of her population, comparatively free from debt, and possessing, in equally great abundance with herself, coal and iron; and cotton—in indefinable quantities—with the power to raise and grow wool to an illimitable amount. Such is Great Britain, holding the whole world, as it were, in colonial vassalage, for no other earthly reason, than the immense power she exercises through her cheap labor, skill and capital.

Surely such a picture as this speaks volumes to us. It tells us as plainly as language can speak, that we must look to our own resources, if we do not desire to be swallowed up in the competition with such a rival.

If we inquire into the causes which enable this mammoth of industry to undersell all Christendom—they are easily discovered. Every Tyro in political economy knows they consist in her great skill, her immense capital, and the low price of wages. Her skill enables her to excel continental Europe, where wages are even lower than with her; but Yankee skill and ingenuity could compete with her, were it not for her immense capital, and the difference in her favor in the price of labor.

We have shown, we think, beyond cavil, that Free Trade cannot exist. The question then is, what measures should we take to countervail her capital and low wages? Is not the answer as plain as day, that we must enact laws to equalize these great advantages, by protecting our labor and increasing our capital? We are not left to experiment to test this—it is no speculation. We have tried it, and can appeal triumphantly to the result.

How have our capital, skill and labor, united to increase the public wealth under our protective system? *Is this—can this be denied?* The census of 1840 tells us we were then annually creating a value of $250,000,000 in manufactures. Mr. Secretary Walker estimates the present value of our manufactures at $300,000,000, and the census shows that they now exceed this amount—deducting the amount already exported annually, about $10,000,000, and we have $290,000,000, nearly all of which, 1,000,000 of our population are adding to our annual income. The question then, which fairly presents itself to the American people, is, shall we go on, in this march of prosperity, enriching our own country, encouraging all the arts, rewarding the laborer to a greater extent than he is rewarded in any other portion of the globe? or are we to give up experience for theory, industry for idleness, well requited labor for beggary, independence for re-colonization, and all because certain speculative theorists tells the people they are enormously taxed. In vain the freemen of the Union reply, we are better housed, better fed, better clothed, better paid, and better educated, than any other people on earth.—In vain are our records appealed to, to show less crime, less licentiousness, more happiness and more comfort than can be elsewhere found. Practice proclaims this throughout the land, and it cannot be denied; but Mr. Walker undertakes to know much better than the people themselves; sits quietly on his cushion in his library, and figures out, by some idle and fallacious process, without any foundation in truth, and sends a report to Congress based upon absurdity, demanding that the manufactures of other countries shall be admitted—the labor and skill of other countries brought, in much increased quantities, *to produce relief to the people of the United States.* That is to say, to the shoe-maker, you are too much taxed, we must have shoes cheaper; to the tailor, you bear too heavy burdens, we must admit wearing-apparel at a lower duty; to the hand-loom weaver, you are borne down with burthens, we must stop your employment altogether!! To the farmer he says, true, you sell your produce to the manufacturer, but it is my opinion you had better send it to England—where it is not needed! This is the new theory which, under the fallacy of "Free Trade," we are called upon to adopt. Nay! we have adopted it; and a law has been passed for the relief of the laboring classes, as is pretended, when its whole and sole, its avowed object, is, to bring into the country some thirty or forty millions more of foreign articles, of the same kind, in the production of which our mechanics are daily employed.

The Tariff of 1846 is expressly made to increase our imports of foreign manufactures—this is its avowed object. Now, experience shows that this cannot be done without the most disastrous consequences to the country.

An appeal to our Congressional documents will show, that whenever our imports have greatly exceeded our exports, the result has always been a paralyzation of the industry and trade, as well foreign, as domestic, of the whole country. If, therefore, the expectations of the Secretary of the Treasury shall be realized, and some twenty or thirty millions, under this new measure, shall be suddenly added to our importations, our exportations cannot be made to increase to the same amount; specie will, therefore, have to be exported, and the whole currency of the country must become deranged, and bankruptcy and ruin follow. If, on the other hand, no increase shall take place in our imports beyond those of last year, the revenue will be diminished to such an extent, as seriously to embarrass the treasury department, and to augment the public debt, in a time of war, when our expenses are enormously increased.

Another very solid objection to the new Tariff, is that the duties are all assessed upon the invoice value, in what are called ad valorem duties. Now, all experience proves that this opens a great door to frauds on the revenue; so much so, that it will drive all honest importers from the trade. Moreover, the prices of articles vary much in the foreign market, and thus render the amount of duty to be received very uncertain. The article of iron has been known to vary as much as fifty per cent. in a short period. But there is a very manifest injustice done to the consumer, in its inevitable tendency to exact on all foreign fabrics the highest duty, when they cost the highest price abroad—a time when, of all others, if we are to depend upon a foreign supply, they ought to pay the lowest duty.

It is a well-known fact, that in Great Britain specific duties are laid on all those articles from which a large revenue is derived—sugar, tea, coffee and tobacco pay by weight; spirits and wines by the gallon; timber by the load—and on these articles more than three-fourths of the British customs duties are assessed and paid.

Without, therefore, at all considering the question of protection, the new Tariff is very imperfect for the purposes of revenue.

But its worst feature is, that it is founded upon a principle, that grants to the foreigner a protection, and thus deprives the American mechanic and artizan of all chance for his own market. What a monstrous principle is this? If, on the experiment of the new Tariff, it shall be found that the increase does not take place that is anticipated; then, if the principle on which it is based, namely, for the purposes of revenue alone, is to be carried out, the duties must still be reduced lower, until a still greater quantity of foreign productions shall come in —the quantity always increasing as the scale of duties descends, until the foreigner obtains complete possession of our home markets. Where can language be found sufficiently strong to condemn such an Anti-American measure? We forbear to express the indignation with which we are filled in its contemplation.

Suppose the British Parliament had the power to make laws for us, could they make one more completely to answer their purposes? We appeal to any sane man to answer this question, with full confidence that he must reply in the negative.

The purposes of Queen Victoria—of the Lords and Commons of Great Britain—are fully answered, and that by a man claiming to be an American citizen, acting as Secretary of the Treasury.

To the freemen of the United States we appeal, therefore, for their decision in this matter, so vital to their best interests. We are no panic-makers, no croakers; we shall prophecy nothing as to the mighty effect to be produced in the depression of every American interest, in the operation of the Tariff Bill of the recent session of Congress. It is now the law of the land, and has fallen upon the country with a withering and blighting influence. What may be its future operation time will determine. That it must be felt in injury to every man's business and prospects, does not admit of a doubt. If it answer the views of its framers, the distress will be of such a destructive nature to the labor of the country, and every class of our citizens will so feel its benumbing influence, that they will rise as one man, to hurl, from the high places they disgrace, all who have contributed to fasten such an evil upon the whole nation.

We ask attention to a comparative view of the late British Tariff, and our own, which will be found in this number, prepared by Edwin Williams; by an examination of which it will be seen, that while the wise policy of England is to relieve her industry from duties on raw materials, our stupid legislators are adding new burdens to our industrious pursuits, at the same time that they are inviting the increased importation of foreign labor, under lessened restrictions, to the manifest destruction of our own.

To the Editor of the National Magazine and Industrial Record:

The following comparative view of the external and internal commerce of the United States is very much at your service for publication in your useful work.

This comparison I deem of very great importance to the true comprehension of the proper measures to be adopted for the best interest of the whole Union; and as the statistics have been taken from public documents, and other reliable sources, the deductions drawn from them I cheerfully submit to the intelligence of my fellow citizens.

FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC TRADE.

The foreign trade of the country, important as it confessedly is, compared with the internal commerce of the country, has always been over-estimated; and it is my main object to show that the internal commerce of the country along our seacoast, and our interior navigable waters, and the fisheries, are immeasurably more important than our foreign trade with all the nations on the globe.

In order to show that the internal commerce greatly exceeds in amount our foreign commerce, I shall refer to some facts which will give a forcible illustration of it. The registered tonnage of the United States, as shown by the last published report of the Secretary of the Treasury, on the 30th of June, 1844, was 1,068,764 tons; embracing, not only vessels engaged in the foreign trade, but vessels engaged in the whale fishery, amounting to 168,293 tons. The enrolled and licensed tonnage, including only vessels engaged in the coasting trade, was 1,211,330 tons. But these vessels are not only more numerous, but they make far more frequent passages than vessels embarked in the foreign trade. This will be illustrated by the fact, that, in 1844, the tonnage of boats on the New-York canals was 117,453 tons, and the quantity of goods transported was 1,816,586 tons. But we have furnished us in an authentic form, by the census of 1840, a variety of facts and statistics, which show the large amount of the products of this country consumed at home, compared with the amount transported abroad.

The amount of the entire exports of this country, with the exception of a moderate amount of foreign goods imported and re-exported, was, in 1844, $99,715,179.

The Indian corn raised in this country is nearly, if not quite, equal to this foreign trade annually. It amounted, in 1840, to 377,532,875 bushels. The amount of the neat cattle very far exceeds the entire amount of our foreign commerce, being, in 1840, 14,971,586 head; and, at $10 per head, they amount to $149,715,860.

The very swine are more in value than our entire exports, being in number 26,301,293, which, at $4 per head, amount to $104,205,172.

Potatoes, 108,298,060 bushels.

Horses and mules, 4,335,669, at $40 per head, equal $173,426,760.

Wheat, 84,823,272 bushels.

Oats, 123,071,341 bushels.

If you compare these amounts with the exports of agricultural produce from this country, how trifling is the amount thus exported, and how entirely disproportioned to its real or comparative value to this country, is the importance attached to the changes of the British tariff, or any other foreign tariff, on agricultural products! The whole amount of all the agricultural products exported from this country to the whole world, with the exception of rice, cotton, and tobacco, by the last published report of the Secretary of the Treasury, was $15,295,186; less than one-half the products of the dairy in a single year, the value of that product being $33,787,008, and less than one *fortieth part* of the amounts consumed in this country in the same period of time.

This very product of the dairy, or the products of a single branch of artisan labor, boots and shoes, are either of them greater than the annual product of all the gold and silver mines in the world. That average annual product is estimated, by those most competent, at the sum of $30,000,000, and either the products of the dairy, or the shoemaker's shop, exceed that amount.

Nor are these statements true in relation to this country alone; it is true the world over, that the home market is the chief market; that the home commerce is the chief commerce; that the internal intercourse, business, prosperity, is far more—immeasurably more—to be considered and valued, than all foreign trade or intercourse. Allusion has been made in congressional debates to the construction of a railroad to the Pacific ocean, and gentlemen seemed to think that the China trade would afford an important support to that road. Without having the figures before me I say, with entire confidence, that the Reading railroad, in Pennsylvania, weekly transports a greater quantity in weight, of coal and other merchandise, than the whole amount, in tons, of goods annually exported and imported from China. The prevailing opinion is a most mistaken one on this subject. Even within the limits of our own country, the goods or persons transported between remote points in the country, compared with those going but a short distance, is very small. We are ever, in our foreign trade and in home trade, like the dog in the fable—in grasping for the shadow throwing away the substance. This is seen on all the great thoroughfares of travel and trade in the country; the intercourse between towns, and counties, and districts, is far the most extensive and important, as that between states is superior to the trade with foreign countries. A few facts will illustrate this.

On the Erie canal, in the state of New-York, for a number of years after it was finished for the whole distance between Albany and Buffalo, the amount of the merchandise transported through the entire canal was only about two and a half per cent. of the entire amount; about $\frac{39}{40}$ths of the receipts were for goods or persons going but a portion of the distance, and either received or discharged at intermediate points between Albany and Buffalo; and although there is a new world open at the west since that time, and the amount of intercourse and business has become immense with the seaboard, yet it is true at this moment that the local business is still superior to the *through* business on that canal.

The same facts are disclosed on all the great thoroughfares of the country. On that great thoroughfare, the Hudson river, the receipts by the various steamboats for passengers going but a part of the distance between New-York and Albany, are far more than for those passing the whole distance between those two points; and if an accurate estimate could be made, it would be, I think, found that of the receipts for passengers in public conveyances between New-York and Buffalo, not one-tenth part would be for persons passing over the whole distance. I have in my possession various official returns from various railroad and steamboat companies further illustrating this subject; but I abstain from an array of figures on this point. They are, however, important, not only as giving a more just view of the value of our home industry and intercourse, but should be borne in mind by persons or corporations embarking in the construction of railroads, canals, and other similar enterprises. Without local support, without aid of a most important kind from its borders, no such work can be sustained if designed to connect remote points. In this view the splendid scheme, very sincerely and enthusiastically urged, to build a railroad to the Pacific, is at the present time one of the most absurd of schemes. If constructed without the charge of a dollar, no Government or individual could afford to run it. The necessary current expenses would be more than four fold the entire receipts.

As a further illustration of the extent and value of our home industry, I refer you to the most interesting facts, disclosed in a recent very minute official examination in the state of Massachusetts, contained in a volume of nearly four hundred pages. A summary of the entire return, showing the value of the articles manufactured in the commonwealth, the amount of capital invested, and the number of hands employed, gives the following result:

The value of the articles manufactured	$114,478,443
The capital invested	$59,145,767
Hands employed	152,766 persons
In addition to this, the value of the cattle, stock, &c., returned, is	$10,256,821

We thus see that the products of the industry of a single state exceed in value our entire foreign exports; and it may not be amiss to remark, in passing, that of this very large amount in this very head-quarters of the cotton and woollen manufactures, that the amount of the manufactures of cotton is but $12,193,449, and of wool but $8,877,478, while the manufactures of boots and shoes for the same year amount to $14,799,140. This amount of boots and shoes is very nearly equal to the entire amount of the agricultural productions of this country exported to all the world, except rice, cotton, and tobacco; and greater than the entire cotton crop of South Carolina.

The principal attack by the free traders generally, and the Secretary of the Treasury in particular, is upon the extensive manufactures of cotton and woollen goods, as being the persons mainly protected by the present tariff bill—advancing that most precious absurdity that the protection of a particular branch of manufacture injures the laborer and benefits the capitalist; and that an increase in the profits, and consequent increased competition and increased demand for labor, will not increase the price of wages. But however this may be, these facts show, that of the hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of goods annually manufactured in this country, a small comparative amount is of the manufactures of cotton and wool; and the Secretary and all his followers will find to their cost, that the industrious portion of the country, on the land and in the workshop, and in the cotton mill, too, understand their own interest better than he can, and have found from their own experience that a home trade is better than a foreign trade; that the interchange of the products of labor between the farmer, and manufacturer, and artisan, is for the benefit of all.

How much more in amount of all the productions of the West at this time are consumed in the State of Massachusetts alone, than are exported to all foreign nations—how much more to be relied upon for permanency and certainty is this home market for the products of the farmer and the mechanic—how much less the cost of transporting the several articles and exchanging them at home, than abroad?

My design is to show the value of the industry of the country, and the much greater quantity and value of the products of land and mechanical labor consumed in the country than exported from it.

Nor is it from any peculiarity connected with this country, owing to its age or condition; so that what may be true of the United States is not true of other nations; or that it is true of this country now, but will not be so when the country is older and its commerce more extended. It is true at this moment of every nation on the globe. In relation to France, from recent official returns, the internal industry of France is estimated at the sum of 8,600,000,000 francs: the exports in the year 1842 were 1,065,400,000 francs—the exports being less than one-eighth of the productive industry of the country. And in relation to Great Britain, the great commercial nation of the world, whose manufactures have been nurtured, and strengthened, and matured by centuries—whose commercial marine is their glory and their pride, and the wonder of the world—the same facts exist in an equally striking degree. The oats, and beans, and barley of England annually exceed the entire amount of their foreign exports! The value of the manufactures of cotton alone in England are not far behind the entire amount of the exports from England to all nations of all English productions!

These facts show the immense annual productions of the industry of this country, with its still more ample resources, already nearly equalling, if not quite, the annual productions of the kingdom of France, and yearly increasing with a most amazing rapidity. With these facts before us, I will only add a few facts, out of many, showing still more directly the amount and relative importance of it.

In the year 1844 the tonnage on the New-York canals of goods transported, was 1,816,586 tons, valued at $92,750,874. The value of these, it will be perceived, is nearly that of our entire exports to foreign nations, and the number of tons cannot be far short of the quantity exported from the country.

There is no direct mode with which I am acquainted of ascertaining the precise number of tons exported in any year from the United States. But by the annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury, we learn that the tonnage of vessels cleared from the United States in the year ending January 30, 1844, was—

American vessels	2,010,924 tons.
Foreign vessels	906,814
	2,917,738

Thus, if all the vessels were on every voyage fully laden, and carried an amount equal to their tonnage, the New-York canals transported an amount equal in weight to about ⅔ of all our exports.

The tonnage of merchandise, of all kinds, on the Mississippi and its branches, in 1843, was estimated, from authentic sources, at 1,800,000 to 2,000,000 tons; and the commerce of these rivers was valued at $225,000,000.

As a further illustration of the commerce of these rivers, I would point you to the last official returns published, showing on these rivers steamboats of a tonnage of 126,275 tons; while at the same time we learn, from equally authentic official sources, that the entire tonnage of the steamboats in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and their dependencies, was but 82,716 tons.

But let us compare for a moment, some branches of this foreign commerce with some portions of this internal trade. I will take, for example, the harbor of Cleveland, which was, in common with all the harbors on the southern shore of Lake Erie before appropriations were made by the general government, no harbor at all; bars were at the mouths of all these rivers, on which, at certain seasons of the year, a man might walk dry shod.

The imports and exports of Cleveland, in 1844, amounted to the sum of $11,195,703.

Compare this with our entire trade with every port on the Mediterranean sea:

The exports to all ports on the Mediterranean for the year ending 30th June, 1844, were	$3,862,907
The imports during the same time	2,728,346
	$6,591,255
Add to this the exports from this country to all the ports in South America for the same year	4,611.293
	$11,202,548

We thus have this remarkable fact, that this single port, which, a few years since, was barred against vessels of any size, has now a commerce equal to our entire commerce in the Mediterranean, added to our entire export to all South America! We hear much of our Mediterranean trade and our South American trade; and we build ships, and man them, at great expense, and send them abroad to protect our commerce in those seas: and these objects are confessedly of high national importance. I would not undervalue this commerce. I would not cease to protect it. I would not diminish so much as a single gun, our force on the ocean; but I must be allowed to say, that the distinction which would make the one constitutional and the other unconstitutional—which would regard the one as national and the other not national—which would find sufficient and ample power to protect and encourage the one and none for the other, must be most remarkable; I must say, absurd.

If any man has ever taken a *voyage* from Buffalo to Chicago, a thousand miles of continuous navigation, in the floating palaces which are rapidly filling these lakes, and has coasted along these five thousand miles of *seacoast*, as it may well be called, on the American shore of the several lakes, or has touched at the various ports on the navigable waters of the Mississippi, and its branches, presenting a *coast* of more than twenty thousand miles—if, in these voyages, he has not shut his eyes to the evidences of present wealth and prosperity, of extended navigation and vast commerce all around him; and if, without being at all a man of imagination, he is a man of figures, and sits down with the proverbial caution of my own countrymen, to *calculate* the future growth and prosperity of this country, and is told that whereas there are now 64 steamers on the upper lakes, in the year 1818 there was not one; that whereas there was in the same year, on the Mississippi and its tributaries, not a steamer and but few vessels of any kind; whereas but thirty years ago, the population of these Western states was but a handful, they now number many millions of hard-working, intelligent men—how will his mind expand with the projects of the future, when all this vast country shall be thickly populated.

Is there any foreign enterprise where as large a section of the country, as various interests, in all parts of the Union are involved, as in this and other enterprises of a similar character?

By a careful examination at the custom-house, in New-York, it appears that 75 per cent. of the goods imported from Great Britain, and 90 per cent. from France, are imported by foreigners, and most of these aliens, besides what are imported on foreign account; and it is an erroneous statement in the report of the Committee on Commerce on the warehouse bill, that this is of recent occurrence, and has arisen under the system of cash duties. It has been the fact, for many years, that foreigners are the principal importers, and the proportion has annually increased. I am very far from approving of any hostile feeling or legislation in relation to this intelligent and respectable class of persons; all I ask is, that the American citizens, engaged in domestic commerce, should be placed on as high grounds as the foreign manufacturer or the foreign merchant. That commerce, which is entirely in the hands of our own citizens, is entitled to as much consideration as that which is in the hands of foreigners and strangers. The strictest rule of Christian morals does not require us to love our neighbor better than ourselves.

I have considered, in what I have already said in relation to the comparative importance of our foreign commerce and domestic commerce, the value of the articles exported or imported, as compared with the whole amount produced and consumed at home. In one point of view, this is far too favorable a comparison for the foreign commerce. I have no hesitation in saying, that if either is to be diminished at the expense of the other, I should much prefer that it should be the foreign trade; and the more of these exchanges which can be made between the farmer and the manufacturer, and other classes in the community, *at home*, the more would it be for the interest of the whole country. Although this view is directly connected with this subject, it opens too wide a field of inquiry and illustration to be made the subject of extended remark. I shall say but a word or two on the subject. I am aware that it is often urged against the policy which seeks to increase home trade and intercourse and exchanges, in the place of our foreign trade, that thereby a large class of persons would be injured, and a large amount of property sacrificed, and a large number of persons thrown out of employment;

and that the ship-owners and ship-builders, and seamen, and various other mechanics and industrious persons, would be sufferers by such a change. Now, the first answer to this is, that certainly a very large portion, and very possibly all, would find the same kind of employment in the domestic commerce of the country, which we have seen is by no means to be despised. And the next answer is, that the amount under consideration is not the *value of the goods* exported or imported; it is the *välue of the labor* employed in the exportation or importation; and this amount, as compared with the aggregate productive industry of the country, is exceedingly trifling and unimportant. The question in this view is the cost of transportation—the *freight*—and this alone represents the labor employed by the ship-builder and other mechanics, the seamen, and all other laborers. What this would be on $100,000,000, the amount of our exports, I know not. I probably estimate it very high at 10 per cent. of the amount, which gives us, say $10,000,000 against $1,000,000,000, which is a moderate estimate of the annual productive industry of the country; thus representing about one-hundredth part of the labor of the country, and only about equal to the avails of the poultry of a single year, as I find by the census, which are over nine millions of dollars. If it is said that there are merchants engaged in this trade whose interests are to be regarded, the answer is obvious, that there would be just as many required to carry on the exchanges of American commodities as now. The exchange of the American corn for the American iron requires the aid of the merchant as well as if the exchange is for the foreign iron; and so of any branch and department of business when the interchange is between persons in our own country, and those interchanges of commodities abroad are *transferred* to our own country. Besides, how poor an argument is it to urge upon the producer of wheat or Indian corn, to inform him that it is proper for him to send his productions abroad for a market, instead of selling it or exchanging it at his own door, in order to aid or sustain a very meritorious person who is willing to act as an intermediate party between himself and the consumer, or that he must have his productions transported 3000 or 4000 miles, because there are persons who make it their business to carry property across the ocean for hire. The farmer may well prefer to save the expense of this long journey, and may possibly think it better to have his shoe-maker, or his hatter, or his blacksmith, or his weaver at hand, instead of being on the other side of the ocean.

I would not undervalue foreign commerce. There are a sufficient number of things which we cannot produce in this country to render our foreign commerce valuable and important. But I prize our foreign commerce less for any pecuniary results, than the important moral and social results which constantly spring from it. Its tendency is to the mutual improvement of the whole human family, to extend liberal and enlarged views of public policy, sound learning, and Christianity, and to promote peace and harmony among nations. It is on these grounds, and these alone, that it is worth what it costs us. If we are to take the narrow, unnational, Anti-American ground urged by some of our strict construction, free trade opponents, we could save a great deal of money by throwing away our foreign commerce. It would be a great deal cheaper for us to let our "mother country" take this branch of our affairs under her motherly care; or possibly some of the more northern nations of Europe, who are content with poor fare and low wages, might make a better bargain with us, and we should not have to pay much for the service. All we should have to do would be to take off all discrimination in favor of American shipping, and while they are in the way of it, we might let them have our coasting trade too on very easy terms. We should thus, by denationalizing ourselves, save the enormous expense of a navy, and other very serious expenses which we now encounter.

I repudiate this narrow and miserable policy, whether applied to the harbors and rivers of the country, its foreign commerce, or its home industry. These interests are national interests, and should so be viewed and treated. And while I would award a just consideration to those embarked in our foreign commerce, I consider the relative economical and pecuniary importance of this commerce, as far immeasurably less important than the commerce between the several states. The gentlemen embarked in this business require no praise at my hands. Some of them are men of high attainments and intelligence; others seek to make up in pretension and in the display of wealth any mental or moral deficiency. And with all the benefits of foreign commerce which I have freely conceded, it cannot be denied that it has had its attendant evils. Habits of extravagance and expense have been engendered; the simple dignity and purity of the American character has been impaired; a very trifling, miserable set of men from abroad, in the main, of small reputation at home, have found in the large cities many ready imitators, and have corrupted the morals and ruined the manners of many foolish persons. As valuable as is our foreign intercourse, that between different parts of our own country, whether in the way of commerce or otherwise, is far more beneficial to our citizens than any with foreign nations. We pay very dearly for the refinements of taste or the cultivation of intellect derived from abroad, if acquired by the sacrifice of public morals.

THE NEW AMERICAN TARIFF,

COMPARED WITH THE NEW BRITISH TARIFF.

It is asserted by the advocates of a low rate of duties on imports, or those who call themselves the advocates of free trade, that the recent legislation in the Congress of the United States, on the subject of the tariff, bears a similarity to the successive series of measures which have been introduced by Sir Robert Peel into the British Parliament, and adopted as the commercial policy of Great Britain.

We intend in the following essay to show that this idea is not founded in fact; but on the contrary, while the policy of our government has been avowed on more than one occasion by those in power, and shown in the new tariff law, which is to go into operation in December next, is aimed against the great and leading manufacturing interests of the country, the policy of the British government is directly the reverse of ours; the operation of their recent legislation of Parliament being as intended, in effect, a boon to the British manufacturers, even at the risk of injury to their own agriculturists.

It is a nice question with British statesmen, whether the alteration of the Corn Laws, by which grain is admitted at a low rate of duty, will in effect benefit the manufacturers of Great Britain as much as is anticipated by that class of the people, although a belief of that benefit has induced the manufacturers for many years to demand a repeal of the Corn Laws. When it is considered that, according to some writers, more than four fifths, or by the estimate of others, two-thirds of the total value of British manufactures are dependant on the home market for consumption, it may well be doubted whether any measure having a tendency to impair the home market, by diminishing the means of the agriculturists, and the laborers and other classes dependent on them, will operate in favor of the manufacturer.

Mr. Laing, a late British writer, says, "in every country the home market is the great and steady basis of its manufacturing prosperity. Commerce itself, if it be not founded on home consumption; if it be merely a carrying trade between distant producers and distant consumers, has proved itself, as in the Hanse-towns, in Genoa, Venice and Holland, to be unstable, evanescent, and unattended with any well-being or improvement in the condition of the mass of the people. With all the colonies and commerce of England, her immense commercial capital, her unrivalled facilities for shipping and trade, her position in the ocean, and her free institutions, open to all the trading capitalists of the world, political economists tell us that more than two-thirds of our industrial products, not including agricultural products, but actually two-thirds of our manufactures, are used in our home consumption, and one-third only is exported. In the agitation of the Corn Law question, many different estimates, or conjectures, have been given, of the amount and value of our foreign, compared to our home market, according to the political views of the writers. In one point all the discordant statements agree—that the export trade is but the overflowings of the cup of our industrial production, its fulness is all within its own rim. The late Mr. Macqueen, a statistical writer of no ordinary talent and conjecture, on the value of the goods produced and exported in 1834, viz:

	Value produced.	Value exported.
Cotton goods	£52,213,586	£20.513,586
Woollen "	44,250,000	3,736,871
Linen "	15,421,186	2,579,655
Silk "	13,425,510	637,013
Leather "	18,000,000	248,302
Total	£143,610,282	£29,715,430

Of clothing materials, which are the main articles on which manufacturing labor is employed, it would appear from this view that about four-fifths of the products of our manufacturing industry are consumed in our home market, and one-fifth only is exported to the foreign market, including our colonial market. Of other manufactured articles produced and exported in 1834, this estimate gives us of iron, cutlery, hardware, &c.; brass and copper wares; wood, cabinet ware, paper, &c., value of goods produced, £57,070,792 — value of same exported,

£4,209,184; and thus the home market for these exceeds still more the proportion consumed in the foreign market.

We may take from this view of our home market, be it correct to the exact proportion or not, that a people must be great consumers, as well as great producers, to be a great manufacturing people and to attain to any great national wealth. There must be at home an exchange of industry for industry, a circulation of production and consumption through every pore of the social body itself. What is merely exhaled and thrown off in export is not sufficient to keep up a healthy movement in a manufacturing nation." So far Mr. Laing.

The loss of a market at home for a large portion of manufactured articles, can only be made up by a proportionate increase of demand for exportation to foreign markets. Time will show whether the expectation of the British manufacturer for an increased demand sufficient to compensate for a diminished consumption at home will be realised. It is enough for our purpose to show, that whatever may be the result, the intention of the British statesmen, at the head of whom is Sir Robert Peel, in the new tariff laws, is to improve the condition of the British manufacturers, and to extend the markets for the products of British enterprise.

The protective system of Great Britain, by which her prosperity as a nation has been so greatly advanced, and which has enabled her to rival or excel all other nations in various branches of industry, was built up by a succession of laws, some of which extend back to the times of the middle ages. For many years the Customs' laws were an intricate and confused mass. In 1823 the late Mr. J. D. Hume, Secretary of the Board of Trade, who was then Comptroller of the Customs in the port of London, was appointed by the Treasury "to undertake the preparation of a general law, or set of laws, for the consolidation of the customs of the United Kingdom." Mr. Hume prepared eleven bills, which received the royal assent in July, 1825, and went into operation on the 1st of January, 1826. By the first in numerical order of these acts, 453 acts were repealed, and their places were supplied by the eleven other acts which followed in numerical succession, and occupied only 400 pages of an octavo volume, instead of being scattered through as many different statutes; and with an appendix of 47 pages, in which some isolated subjects not repealed were given, the whole code of the laws of the customs was contained in one not very large volume. In 1833, the acts of 6 George IV. were repealed, for the purpose of introducing fresh amendments in eight new acts, which were passed for the amendment and alteration of the customs' laws; and in the session of 1845 these laws were further amended and altered by eleven new acts, in which the enactments and alterations made since 1833 are introduced, and the acts of that year are repealed.

The appointment of a select committee of the House of Commons in 1840, on Import Duties, was the commencement of a new era in commercial legislation. The severe scrutiny to which the principles of the tariff were exposed by this committee was followed in two or three successive years, including 1845, by some very useful amendments, to which may be added the additional amendments adopted by the bill introduced the present year by Sir Robert Peel, and now passed into a law. An abstract of the report of the Import Duties' Committee, in

1840, showed that while 94½ per cent., (or £21,700,630,) of the total revenue from customs, (£22,962,610) was obtained from seventeen articles, there were above eleven hundred articles subject to different rates of duty; which, in the language of Mr. Mc Gregor, of the Board of Trade, were "burdens, restrictions, and delays upon the industry and prosperity of the country."

The following is a list of the 17 articles referred to, each producing more than £100,000 to the revenue:

	Amt. duties.		Amt. duties.
1. Sugar and molasses	£4,827,018	10. Silk manufactures	£247,362
2. Tea	3,658,800	11. Butter	213,077
3. Tobacco	3,495,686	12. Currants	189,291
4. Rum, brandy, &c.	2,615,443	13. Tallow	182,000
5. Wine	1,849,700	14. Seeds	145,323
6. Timber	1,603,194	15. Sheep's wool	139,770
7. Corn, (grain, flour, &c.)	1,098,779	16. Raisins	134,589
8. Coffee	779,114	17. Cheese	100,521
9. Cotton wool	416,257		
		17 Articles producing duties	£21,700,630

In 1842, Sir Robert Peel reduced the duty on about 750 different articles, which had yielded only £270,000 to the revenue. At the same time he totally abolished the duty on other articles, and he removed the prohibition on the importation of foreign horned cattle, sheep, goats, swine, salmon, soles, and some other fish, and beef and pork. The general principle of the tariff of 1842, was to reduce the duty on raw materials to about 5 per cent.; to limit the highest duty on partially manufactured materials, to 12 per cent., and on complete manufactures to about 20 per cent. In 1842, also, the sliding scale of duty on the importation of foreign corn or grain was altered. In 1844, the duty on foreign wool was repealed. In 1845, further alterations were made in the tariff: the duty on cotton wool, which produced a revenue of about £680,000, was repealed, (for the benefit of the cotton manufacture,) and the duties on four hundred and thirty other articles, which yielded about £320,000 to the revenue, were totally abolished. By this important improvement, the expenses of warehousing are saved, and a great number of troublesome accounts and vexatious impediments to business are done away with; but for statistical purposes, the customs department retains the power of examining articles which do not pay duties.

The following statements show the net annual produce of the duties of customs on all articles imported into the United Kingdom in the two years which preceded the alterations in the tariff made in 1842, and in the two years after these changes were effected:

	Articles on which the duties were reduced in 1842-'3-'4.		Articles on which no alteration was made in 1842-'3-'4.	
	Two years before.	Two years after.	Two years before.	Two years after.
Raw materials for manuf.	£1,347,599	£517,243	£847,481	£897,598
Articles partially manuf.	1,048,343	648,105	2,886	3,883
Articles wholly manuf.	159,298	141,184	320,272	334,341
Articles of food*	1,082,442	1,080,992	16,933,465	17,848,160
Articles not belonging to the preceding heads	213,577	90,872	10,421	11,408
Total	£3,851,259	£2,478,396	£18,114,525	£19,994,890

* Exclusive of corn and grain.

It will be observed, that the annual reduction of duties on raw materials for manufacture, amounted to £830,356, and on articles partially manufactured, to £400,238, making the annual boon to the manufacturers £1,230,594, equal to $5,906,851, while the reduction of duties on manufactured articles imported, was only £18,114, and on all other articles the reduction was only £124,155. At the same time the amount of revenue on articles, in which no alteration was made in the tariff in 1842-'3-'4, was actually increased £1,880,365, while the total amount of reductions on articles on which the tariff was altered, was £1,372,863. This shows that the increase of the revenue on the unchanged articles exceeds the reductions on other articles, by the sum of £507,502; or a *backward advance* from "free trade" of 2,436,000 dollars.

By the new British tariff adopted at the present sessions of Parliament, further reductions and repeal of duties on articles imported have been made; the government still pursuing the policy which has guided them in all the changes in the tariff referred to, namely, promoting the interests of the manufacturing classes. Thus, raw hides, mahogany and other woods for manufacture, vegetables, and a few other articles, are now added to the free list, while animals, beef, pork, and some other articles of food, being also admitted free of duty, the expenses of living are of course reduced to the manufacturer; add to this the reduction of duties on bread stuffs, by the change in the corn laws, and we can estimate in some degree the amount of benefits which are expected to be derived by the British manufacturer by the recent legislation of Parliament; and the increased advantages those manufacturers will have in contending with foreign rivals for the markets of the world.

It is true that the new British tariff has reduced the rates of duties levied on the manufactures of other nations when imported into the United Kingdom. British statesmen know that they may safely rely on the capital and skill acquired during long periods of protection, against any attempts that may be made by their manufacturing rivals of other countries, to introduce the products of their industry into Great Britain. In 1839 the duties received on manufactured articles imported into the United Kingdom, amounted to only £443,355, of which silk goods imported contributed more than one half. Two years after the alteration of the tariff in 1842-'3-'4, the annual amount of duties on manufactures imported, was £475,525, which shows but a small increase of imports in consequence of the reduction of duties. The duties on silk manufactures in 1839, amounted to £247,361, and in 1844, to £286,535.

Deputations of manufacturers, who attended at the Board of Trade in 1839 and 1840, frequently expressed their willingness to give up the protection secured to them by the then existing rate of duties. The manufacturers of glass and silks, it was believed, were not equally willing to repudiate protection; but these branches of industry were for so long a period in a highly artificial state, as naturally to induce a sense of weakness. A British writer says, (in 1840,) "the duties received on silk goods imported, contribute considerably more than one-half of the revenue levied on imported manufactures;" and it is clear, therefore, that silks are manufactured abroad from 20 to 40 per cent. cheaper than in England; and accordingly the silk manufacturers claim protection to this extent. (By the new tariff the duty is reduced to fifteen per cent.)

With the superior natural advantages of Great Britain, and the intelligence and industry of her population, Mr. Mc Gregor says, (in 1840,) "we might in every manufacture we now possess meet foreign countries in every market in the world, and in most instances undersell them;" "but," adds another writer, "we allow the resources which would enable us to accomplish this to be counterbalanced by prohibitory duties on the importation of food, (partially removed in 1846.) Manufacturing industry naturally seeks the most advantageous situations for its successful operations, and hence there is a constant stream of emigration directed towards those countries in which the price of food is at a moderate rate. Factories managed by Englishmen, are established by foreigners with their own capital; and British capital and British workmen are also employed in cotton factories in Belgium, Germany, and other continental states, and their manufactured goods compete, in the markets of the Mediterranean, the United States, South America, and elsewhere, with the goods exported from the United Kingdom. Dividing the nine years from 1831 to 1839 into three periods each, the average official value of machinery annually exported by us, in the first three years, was £108,423; in the second period £274,008; and in the last three years, the average for each year was £601,394. But not only are industry and capital transferred to other countries from England, for the sake of more profitable employment," but Mr. Mc Gregor states, "that from £4,000,000 to £5,000,000 are drawn annually from this country by persons of fortune, who go to France, Italy, Switzerland, and other parts of the continent, where they can live better at less expense than at home. Now, provided our commercial system was of a more enlightened character, measures would speedily be adopted which would have the effect of assimilating the prices of necessaries in England and on the continent. There is at present nothing to stop the progress of manufacturing industry on the continent of Europe; and time only is required to enable foreign manufacturers to produce a sufficient supply of goods to supplant us.

These extracts abundantly show some of the causes and considerations which have operated on the minds of Sir Robert Peel and other British statesmen, to induce them to relax the restrictive measures of their commercial code, and to consent to a melioration of their corn laws; the latter change being viewed by them as an experiment at variance with what many of them have heretofore considered the policy essential to the prosperity of the nation.

We will now briefly examine our new American tariff, which is to go into operation in December next, and endeavor to show wherein it differs in effect from the British tariff, with regard to its operation on the manufacturer, and consequently on the industry and general interests of the country.

The first feature to be noticed in this new tariff is, that it fixes higher rates of duties on many articles (raw materials, &c.) used in manufactures, than the tariff of 1842 laid on the same articles, nearly all of which are also free of duty by the present British tariff.

This is shown by the following comparative table of duties on sundry articles, payable by our tariff of 1842 and 1846:

	New Tariff of 1846.	Tariff of 1842.	British Tariff.
Coarse wool	30 per cent	5 per cent	free
Raw hides and skins	5 "	5 "	free
Wood, mahogany, &c	20 "	15 "	free
" other kinds, except timber	30 "	free	free
Antimony, crude	20 "	free	free
Barilla	10 "	free	free
Bark of the cork tree	15 "	free	free
Berries used for dyeing	5 "	free	free
Brimstone, or sulphur	20 "	free	free
Dye woods	5 "	free	free
Ebony	20 "	free	free
Cochineal	10 "	free	free
Crude saltpetre	5 "	free	free
Burr stones, unwrought	10 "	free	free
Brass, old	5 "	free	
Gum Arabic	10 "	free	free
India rubber	10 "	free	
Kelp	10 "	free	
Kermes	5 "	free	
Precious stones	10 "	7 per cent	free
Pearl, Mother of	5 "	free	free
Ivory, unmanufactured	5 "	free	free
Madder	5 "	free	free
Palm leaf, unmanufactured	10 "	free	free
Rattans and reeds, do	10 "	free	free
Shellac	5 "	free	free
Sumac	5 "	free	free
Weld	5 "	free	free
Tin, in sheets or plates	15 "	2½ pr cent	
Tin, in pigs, bars, or blocks	5 "	1 "	
Tortoise shell	5 "	5 "	free

We might extend this list, but enough is given to show the comparative legislation of the American and British governments, with regard to raw materials and other articles essential for the use of manufactures and in the arts. While the British Parliament are removing all duties on articles required for the use of their manufacturers, our American Congress have increased the burdens of our manufacturers, by additional duties on the raw materials imported for their use; at the same time that they have reduced the protective duties. Was there ever a parallel case of injustice in the history of legislation in any country?

Several classes of articles used in manufactures which pay small specific rates of duties by the tariff of 1842, have been changed by the new tariff, and on most of them the ad valorem rates will be higher than the specific rates now paid. The following will serve as specimens, taking the duties actually paid on the last importations, by the report of the Secretary of the Treasury:

	Present Rates.	Equal to.	New Tariff.
Indigo	5 cts. per lb.	6½ per cent.	10 per cent.
Bristles	1 " "	2 "	5 "
Flax	$20 per ton.	10 "	15 "
Paper rags	25 cts. per 100lb.	6½ "	5 "

On all the previously named articles, it will be observed, the duties are increased, except rags, on which there is a small apparent reduction on those of the quality imported last year.

The importance in amount of raw materials and other articles imported for our manufactures, is shown by the following statement of the value of part of those articles imported, for the year ending June 30, 1845—(the last returns.) Let it be borne in mind that while our government withdraws a large proportion of the protection to our manufactures, by reducing the rates of duties on articles imported coming in direct competition with them, it taxes them with additional duties on the raw materials used; as if intentionally to deprive them of the ability of competing with the British manufacturer, who obtains the like raw materials free of duty.

Value of Articles Imported, principally for the use of manufactures, in the year ending June 30, 1845.

Articles paying Duty.		Amount.
Coarse wool		$1,553,789
Mahogany		261,292
Rose wood		18,912
Satin and cedar wood		18,878
Indigo		862,700
Bristles		172,076
Flax		90,509
Rags		421,080
Block tin and other articles,	at 1 per cent. duty	212,975
Tin, in plates or sheets, &c.,	at 2½ " " "	1,690,460
Raw hides and skins, &c.,	at 5 " " "	1,975,103
		$7,277,674

Articles free of Duty.	
Dye-wood, in sticks	$603,408
Wood, unmanufactured	87,315
Burr stones, unwrought	32,624
Brimstone and sulphur	108,619
Bark of the cork tree	8,812
Barilla	22,917
Nuts and Berries, used in dyeing	132,490
Clay, unwrought	14,670
Articles, not enumerated	2,958,563
Total	$11,247,092

It is within bounds to say, that the additional taxes imposed on the manufacturer by the new tariff, on raw materials alone, will amount to at least ten per cent., or over one million of dollars, unless we suppose that the operation of this new law should reduce or destroy, as it probably may, some branches of manufactures, and thus diminish the tax imposed on them. Compare this effect with the new British tariff, which, as we have already stated, releases the more favored manufactures of Great Britain from taxes on raw materials formerly paid, amounting to more than five millions of dollars.

The great leading interests of national industry which will be most affected by our new tariff, are the manufactures of iron, cottons, woollens, leather, paper, machinery, lead in its various branches, glass, ready made clothing, and cordage. Many other branches of manufactures might be mentioned, which will be affected directly or indirectly. Indeed, we apprehend all classes, who depend on their daily labor for subsistence, will suffer by this blow at our protective system; for while the great manufacturing interests we have mentioned are prostrated, the country cannot be prosperous; and if the condition of the people will not sustain the present or recent demand for articles of consumption, how can those classes of mechanics, manufacturers and others, who seem to be protected by the new tariff, flourish, with a diminished and constantly decreasing market for their fabrics?

We are compelled to omit, in consequence of the length of this article, to notice, as we desired, those branches of industry which have recently sprung into existence, or have exhibited signs of life and excited hopes for the future; but which infantile manufactures must be checked or destroyed, under the operation of the new tariff. Among these the important interest of silk should be named as the most prominent. The tariff of 1842 wisely fixed specific and other protective rates of duty on manufactures of silk, which were considered absolutely necessary to sustain this new branch of industry, and under those auspices it has been fast growing into importance, exciting the most lively interest in many parts of the Union. The new tariff repeals the specific duties on silk, and fixes a low rate of ad valorem duties, leaving the enterprising and industrious citizens who have engaged in its cultivation and manufacture, at the mercy of foreign competition.

Thus, then, we see that the present approaches to what is erroneously called "Free Trade," is in England one thing and in the United States another. In England, it is, to lay the heaviest duties on the great articles of tobacco, tea, coffee, distilled spirits, sugar and wines; not one of which is produced in the realm, but which are largely imported, and which pay two-thirds of the whole customs revenue, and to remove the duty from every species of material that enters into manufactures of any kind; thus sustaining the industry of her working classes. While in the United States, what is called "Free Trade," or an approach to it, is to reduce the duty on all manufactured goods, and to increase it to the destruction of the working classes, on many raw materials, as we have already shown.

Does not this establish, beyond all dispute or cavil, what we have asserted in another place, that no such thing as "Free Trade" now exists, or can exist? and that while England, our great rival, is doing everything she can to foster and sustain her superiority in manufacturing, our present rulers are playing most completely into her hands, and rendering us more and more tributary to her, while lessening our ability to pay for every foreign production imported into this country.

The plain truth is, and it is folly to attempt to conceal it, that the worst evil, the skill, capital and labor of this country has to contend with, is its own present government, who, not content with demanding specie in all payments made to them by the people, have, by the enactment of the tariff of 1846, legislated against America, and in favor of England.

PLANTING AND AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS EXPORTED.

We take from Document No. 140, of the recent session of Congress, the following results of the exports of the proceeds of our cotton-planting industry, from which much useful information may be derived. Referring to the tables themselves, which will be found in the Report of the Commissioner of Patents, for the details, we make the following condensation of them: and, first, we propose to illustrate by facts, the argument we have often used, that prices are, to a great extent, regulated by demand and supply. To do this we take the number of pounds of raw cotton exported in the several years, commencing with the year from October 1st, 1830, to September 30, 1831, and ending with the year, from July 1st, 1844, to June 30th, 1845.

				lbs.	Value.
Cotton	exported from	Oct.	1, 1830, to Sept. 30, 1831,...	276,979,784,..	$25,289,492
"	"	"	1, 1831, to Sept. 30, 1832,...	322,215,122,..	31,724,682
"	"	"	1, 1832, to Sept. 30, 1833,...	324,698,604,..	36,191,105
"	"	"	1, 1833, to Sept. 30, 1834,...	384,717,907,..	49,448,402
"	"	"	1, 1834, to Sept. 30, 1835,...	387,358,992,..	64,961.302
"	"	"	1, 1835, to Sept. 30, 1836,...	423,631,307,..	71,284,925
"	"	"	1, 1836, to Sept. 30, 1837,...	444,687,621,..	63,240,102
"	"	"	1, 1837, to Sept. 30, 1838,...	595,952,297,..	61,556,811
"	"	"	1, 1838, to Sept. 30, 1839,...	413,624,212,..	61,238,982
"	"	"	1, 1839, to Sept. 30, 1840,...	743,941,061,..	63,870,307
"	"	"	1, 1840, to Sept. 30, 1841,...	530,204,100,..	54,330,341
"	"	"	1, 1841, to Sept. 30, 1842,...	584,717,017,..	47,593,464
"	"	"	1, 1842, to June 30, 1843,...	792,297,106,..	49,119,806
"	"	July	1, 1843, to June 30, 1844,...	663,633,455,..	54,063,501
"	"	"	1, 1844, to June 30, 1845,...	872,905,996,..	51,739,643

We ask our Southern brethren to study this table. In 1836, 423,631,307lbs. produced 19,545,282 dollars more than did 872,905,996lbs. in 1845; and the difference between 1835 and 1837, with that of 1845, was nearly the same.

Ought not the facts here exhibited on this subject to convince the most skeptical Southern man in the Union, that the great depression in the value of cotton is caused by the immensely increased production of the article? Were our Southern planters to grow less cotton, and would they thus diversify their labor, by the introduction of manufactures, the immense advantages they would derive from it may easily be calculated.

Suppose the number of hands now engaged in the planting of cotton to amount to 1,000,000, and we believe this to be very near the truth; and let there be taken from this culture 250,000, or one-fourth, to be employed, some in raising corn, indigo, silk, or in fact, any other agricultural products; and a portion of them in working the rich mines of iron with which the Southern states abound, and in making the coarser articles of cotton goods, a very few years would convince them, that the heaviest tax a people can pay, is that which is imposed by a restriction of the application of labor to one pursuit.

So much for what these tables exhibit as regards the South. They, however, tell a tale with regard to the labor of the middle and northern states, that is of the most vital importance to *them*.

The value of all the agricultural exports of the free states, and the manufactures exported, do not, at any time, exceed eighteen millions of dollars per annum; while the cotton, rice, tobacco, and naval stores of the Southern states, will average seventy millions of dollars.

Now, Professor Tucker states the whole population of the free states in 1840, 9,556,915; white population of the slave states in 1840, 4,632,640.

Thus, it appears that the export trade of the country exceeds $15 per head for the whole white population of the South; and is not $2 per head for the population of the free states! This is surely a striking contrast, and shows for whose benefit all the expenses of our foreign commerce are paid.

But this is not all—a reference to our consumption of foreign articles will show, that they amount to an average of about $100,000,000. Now, admitting that the white population of the South consume their full proportion of the foreign articles consumed; and they do not consume more than one-third, or,.......................30,000,000
While the free states consume the remaining............70,000,000

$100,000,000

The new tariff of 1846 proposes to increase this consumption some 30 to $40,000,000.

Thus greatly increasing the relative amount of importations and exportations; and, of course, throwing much heavier burthens upon the free states.

We think it high time that this subject should be properly examined; and if so, it will be clearly perceived, that not only does the reduction of duties to the revenue standard, break down the industry of the free states, but it is intended to impose new burdens upon the people.

We say, it is so *intended*—and for a season it may do so; though we think it will eventually so cripple the home industry, that our importations will fall short of their present amount, as was the case in 1841, under the compromise act. But this will not be the case until a ruin will be brought about which will be felt throughout the whole Union.

We are quite willing to let the future tell the result of the ruinous measures of the late Congress; while we think it very important to call the attention of the free states to the great discrepancy there now is, in the benefits conferred by our foreign commerce, and the much greater one which the new tariff is *intended* to produce.

No country can, for any long time, import more than it can pay for. The amount or rate of duties paid, however much they may be lessened, will not give the country the power to consume. The people must be usefully and profitably employed, to enable them to pay for what they purchase. The new tariff is eminently calculated to lessen the amount of value created, and it calls for a much greater consumption, if revenue enough is to be raised from it.

It *may*, and probably will, cause for a time larger importations of foreign articles; but those who have calculated to benefit labor by the increased importation of its proceeds from abroad, will be as much mistaken as they would be, in attempting to persuade the people of the non-slave holding states, that it would be to their advantage to reduce the value of free labor to that of the labor of slaves.

SENATOR HAYWOOD'S ADDRESS TO HIS CONSTITUENTS.

We had prepared several articles for insertion in this number, more than half of which was in type when we received the National Intelligencer, containing Senator Haywood's "Address to his Constituents."

On giving it a careful and attentive reading, we have come to the conclusion to publish great part of it, to the exclusion of other matter, being fully satisfied that nothing we can insert would prove equally interesting to our readers, at this time.

We shall omit his introductory remarks, as merely stating his reluctance to make the address; and also much of the latter part of it. These are not necessary to the full and complete comprehension of the address, and form no part of the history of the transaction; nor does this omission, while it saves us much space, in the slightest degree do injustice to Mr. Haywood, whose defence is complete, without the portion we have been obliged to exclude.

Extract from Mr. Haywood's Address to his Constituents.

The subject of the tariff, and the system of laws by which taxes are imposed and collected for the use of the General Government throughout the Union, is one of deep importance, but of much intricacy and great difficulty in its judicious arrangement. Soon after taking my seat in the Senate of the United States, (in December, 1843) I, for one, felt what any man when he first goes into Congress directly from private life, will be apt to experience; and that was, a lack of necessary knowledge and information upon it. With an ambition to learn my duty as a legislator for this great Republic, and a fixed determination to pursue it afterwards, I immediately gave my whole mind to the study and consideration of this tariff system, well knowing that upon it depended in a good degree the chief operations in commerce, agriculture, and manufactures in the other states, as well as ours. During the first session of the last Congress, and after having devoted nearly all my time, for some months, to this study, I hoped I had made myself qualified, and my political associates believed me fit to be consulted and counselled with, in our united efforts to arrange a tariff with justice to all sections, and with entire safety to the business, prosperity, harmony, peace, and independence of the Union. To admit that this could not be done, was to declare that the Union cannot be preserved, and the cause of free government had failed.

The democratic senators in particular, concurring as we did then, and do now, with a few exceptions at the north, in a sentiment of opposition to the tariff of 1842, desired to see it changed. That act was believed to be extreme in its protective character, and therefore unequal and unsatisfactory to large sections of the Union; and our aim was to modify it by the nearest possible approach to that happy mean between the extreme opinions of such as demand a total abandonment of all protection on one hand, and of those who insist upon protection as a primary object on the other. I have no doubt that this is the only foundation upon which wise and just legislation can be based, when interests really conflicting are to be affected by the action of the General Government. Conferences with each other, and with the chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means of the House of Representatives, (Mr. McKay) were frequently held, as to the best mode of altering and reforming the tariff of 1842. The more eminent men of the democratic party in the Senate, and leading statesmen from different sections of the Union in Congress, took part in the deliberations and investigations which preceded and accompanied the formation of what was then called and known as "McKay's bill and report," viz., in March, 1844. In the councils whence that bill proceeded, I had the honor to be admitted as an humble an unpretending participator, so that I knew, and it cannot be denied, that quite all the democratic senators from the south and west, and very nearly every one from the north and east, assented to or acquiesced in it. It formed a subject sf congratulation, I remember among the members of the party from all sections, at that time, (1844) that the opinions and views of democrats in the national councils had been thus brought to harmonize in what was thought to be a reasonable, prudent, practical measure of legislation upon this subject, which seemed likely to put at rest and settle the tariff dispute. Unfortunately, it did not pass the House of Representatives; I will not stop to state the cause. But, notwithstanding its temporary defeat in that body, the democratic party at once put themselves before the people of the Union upon that bill as a common platform, and it was promulgated as their proposed scheme of reforming the tariff act of 1842. "McKay's report" of 1844 was published and sent forth as the true and authentic interpretation of their views in regard to the change we were afterwards to insist upon. So I understood it at the time, and ever since, and so have I constantly declared. The bill was named after its author and advocate, (Mr. McKay) a statesman of North-Carolina—a southernman and a democrat. My own opinions in its favor were freely expressed in all my intercourse with you, and they are not unknown in any quarter. The democratic press in North-Carolina, without exception, applauded it. The democratic party zealously approved of it throughout our limits. If there was a single one of them who did not, I am yet to learn the fact. Hundreds, if not thousands, of the other party in our state gave their approving voice in its favor. Our elections in 1844 and 1845, all of them, were conducted upon that basis, so far as the tariff question entered into them at all. Every intelligent man in the nation knows the fact, that the fall elections of 1844, and those of the spring of

1845, throughout the United States, for members to the present Congress, were carried on, if not upon the same basis, with a knowledge of that bill and report. The north saw it in a pledge of the *south* and west, that we did not mean to break down and oppress the labor and industry of the north and east. The south saw it in a reasonable concession to their demand for practical free trade. The people everywhere saw in it the hope for moderate legislation, and the prospect of a permanent arrangement of a question that had been agitating the nation for a quarter of a century: and if your memory still serves you with a recollection of any of the speeches of our candidates for the last Legislature or the present Congress, made in North-Carolina only a year ago, I beg to know whether it was not uniformly proclaimed that all *true* democrats were going in favor of "McKay's bill" of 1844? Bear in mind that the "McKay bill" of 1844 and the McKay bill of 1846 agree in nothing but the name, as I will show you hereafter.

And what, let me ask, was the result of all this? In the north, as well as in the south and west, the elections to the present Congress ended favorably to the democratic party. A democratic majority of more than sixty were returned to the House of Representatives. The same party held a majority in the Senate. And a democratic President, nominated after the "McKay bill" of 1844 had been framed and approved by the party, was elected by the votes of states in the north as well as the south; a southern and western President, whom we could not have elected without the votes of northern states. Of course I cannot undertake to affirm, as a fact, that the northern states which voted for the democratic party were induced to do it by McKay's bill and report of 1844. But this I know, and will say, that it was put forth as a political peace-offering upon the tariff; and that the northern people at once rallied to the support of the party, in numbers largely beyond those which had heretofore supported it; and that it was *expected by us, when that offering was made, that it would conciliate the northern democrats;* and I have no doubt that it enlisted the support of thousands who would not have sustained the party without it. Now, then, I put it to the conscience of the people of North-Carolina, who I know all love their country—north, south, east, and west—whether, under such circumstances, I was bound to violate my sense of duty, and, contrary alike to this party-pledge, and to my own sober judgment as a senator, to assent to an act which violated, out and out, the "McKay bill" of 1844, when there was no public emergency to require it, and no national exigency to excuse it; and that when I did most confidently believe that the new tariff act of the present Congress was, in itself, unwise, and full of mischief to the Republic? Was it my duty to you, or to the democratic party of North-Carolina, to have done that? And had I no right to resign and retire from it? Was I bound to hold on to my office, and put up the pretended excuse that the democrats of North-Carolina had changed their minds, and repudiated "McKay's bill" of 1844 for a new and different measure in 1846; or that the people desired me to pass the latter, when, forsooth, I did not know the fact to be so, and in my heart I did not believe it? So far from its being the case, I more than doubt whether thousands of you have not taken it for granted, or been led to believe, down to this day, that the "McKay bill" of 1844 was the same thing that is called so in 1846, whereas they are as different as light is from darkness. No, my constituents never required such things of me.

Believe me, I do not mean to bring into question the course of other democratic senators who condemned the act, and yet gave it their vote. It is my right to state that there were not a few of them who did that. Neither do I mean by this to assail my friend, Mr. McKay. Far from it. They are my friends, personally and politically, and in taking a different view of their duty they did me no wrong; and in defending my own conduct, I intend not to arraign theirs. Whilst I have pursued the light of my conscience, they have followed theirs. In questions of conscience, it must be conceded that God is the judge, and every man must stand or fall according as each believes for himself. So that not unfrequently there are cases where men in the same circumstances may act differently, and yet both be guiltless.

But what I have said upon the history and purpose of the "McKay bill" of 1844, did not form all of my objection to the new tariff of 1846, improperly named "McKay's bill;" and which I shall, for the sake of discrimination, more properly call the "Experimental Tariff."

My opinions shall be laid before you without disguise, and you shall see whether, taken in connexion with an unnecessary and improper abandonment of the real McKay bill of 1844, they do not show, that in my hostility to the experimental tariff, I was faithful to you and my country, and true to myself and my party.

Fortunately for me, those opinions, so far as they looked forward to its ultimate consequences on the harmony of the party or the welfare of the Republic, I am no longer under the necessity of supporting by labored arguments. For good or evil the law has passed. If it should be repealed or modified at the next session, that will be of itself a complete vindication of my opposition to it at present. If it should be permitted to remain in force in the form that I was required to vote upon it, then time will soon determine whether my opinion of it was right or wrong. I abide the result without fear; yet, if I know myself, without a wish to see evil come of it, merely for the sake of claiming hereafter the merit of political sagacity for my resistance to it.

These, then, were my opinions, as they are now:

First. Our country is involved in an expensive war, and the wisest among you cannot forsee its close. We have a large army invading Mexico, and a large navy off her coasts, along the Pacific Ocean and in the Gulf of Mexico. The sum already appropriated by Congress for the Government expenditures of the fiscal year exceeds FIFTY MILLIONS of dollars. Will the experimental tariff raise revenue sufficient to "pay as we go?" Certainly not. Congress knew that, and therefore authorized a loan of ten millions, at the very time we were passing this tariff; and the first act of the next session will probably be one for ten millions more! Will it produce revenue enough to pay *one half* of the appropriations? I am quite sure it will not. Its advocates did not assert that it will do much more.

Wherefore, if this experiment works as well as its warmest friends have predicted, the Government will fall in debt twenty-five millions this (fiscal) year. So long as the war lasts, and for such a period of time after it as the war expenses continue, it will be the same thing. But if the experiment works as illy as its more violent opponents have said of it, why then it will hardly go at all. I think the truth lies between them. It will work, but it will work badly, and work you deeply into debt; and if it is adhered to "without alteration," the public debt will be increased not much short of THIRTY MILLIONS the first year, and I can see no way to prevent its yearly increase, except by a resort to direct taxes.

Direct taxes ought to be our very last resort—public debt is an evil that I abhor more than ever, since I was a member of Congress; and therefore it was the conclusion of my mind that this tariff experiment ought not to be tried, and certainly not at this particular time. The acts of a Congress which went to diminish the revenue, but to increase the expenditures, did not seem to me to be consistent with prudence in any Government, more especially in a time of war. The tariff system, according to my judgment, was a most unfit subject for party experiments; and at the time of a yearly expenditure of fifty millions of dollars, and of a foreign war, such experiments amounted to party rashness. If the war should end soon, still the Government here, we knew, expected to terminate it by a treaty for peace and a new territory, viz: California. No honest country would take the territory without paying the owner for it, and, if we would, Mexico cannot yield it upon any other terms. Hence, whether we were to have peace or war with Mexico, we needed much more money to carry on the Government. When the plainest rules of arithmetic and common sense thus compelled me to withhold my support from a tariff experiment, to be made now, at the expense of the nation's credit, how could I hesitate?

Second. The tariff of 1842 ought to have been modified, but not by an act which reduced the duties as early as the 1st December.

In all great alterations of the tariff diminishing duties, the reductions ought to be made upon reasonable notice to the people whose property and business will be affected by them. In that case there may be inconvenience to some, but it does not bring ruin down upon so many innocent people. Not giving time, infant factories are destroyed by the hand of legislation, and the older and more mature establishments are compelled to diminish their operations forthwith, and consequently to discharge a number of their laborers, and reduce the wages of all. The laborers suffer more than the owners, because they are less able to bear it. The sudden loss of work will be to many of them and their families a loss of food and raiment; and that which the law-maker is commanded to pray for—his "daily bread"—he would be thus rudely taken by law from the working man of his country. And the experimental tariff act was the more objectionable, inasmuch as many of our countrymen—the Northern laborers, who are to suffer under it—will be put out of employment in the beginning of winter, when other employments will be obtained with great difficulty; and at the North the poor, without labor and wages, encounter a degree of suffering in that inclement season which we have no just conception of at the South. You must see it before you can fully appreciate it. Also, a sudden alteration of the tariff must of necessity disturb the home market of our manufacturers, coal-diggers, and mechanics, and involve hundreds and thousands, in losses to some, ruin to others, and suffering to many.

Even a bad tariff law, then, should not be repealed so as to fall down too hastily, when its gradual abrogation would create less inconvenience to the Government, and its sudden change may oppress the poor, or do injustice to any section. The government ought to have compassion on all the people, and particularly upon the laboring classes. The manufacturers at the North are not all "Abbot Lawrences," whose fortune has been the theme of so many tariff speeches. The compromise tariff act, under Gen. Jackson, in 1833, reduced the duties gradually and periodically for nine years. *It* gave nine years' notice. *This Experimental Tariff* will reduce all the duties upon only four months' notice! The latter was harsh, cruel, unjust legislation; harsh to the wealthy, cruel to the laborer, and unjust to both; and the general welfare did not require it.

Third. The Independent Treasury, of itself a great change; the Warehousing act another; and the Experimental Tariff, the greatest of them all, will, when taken together, work an entire revolution of our financial system. One at a time they might have been introduced more safely, some of them wisely; but, by being so nearly united, as they will be, in the time of their commencement, it is calculated to excite apprehension and alarm. To put them into simultaneous operation was, indeed, a political movement of party too violent and too potent for good. They will affect all the business of the people most injuriously; and, with a Government expenditure of fifty millions and a revenue under twenty millions, the Government itself may be crushed under their combined operation. To attempt it, when the nation was at war abroad, and the Government was in the money market, or soon expected there, as a borrower at home, clearly appeared to my mind to be unwisely jeoparding public credit and private confidence. Revolutions are seldom reforms, and certainly reforms need not always be revolutions. One must reasonably fear that, without a miracle, such strong measures, acting with their combined power against the existing order of things in the country, may create a revulsion in trade, pecuniary distress, hard times, popular excitements, and sectional agitations, preceding another contest for the Presidency, and do nobody any good but a few political agitators and rich speculators. I thought they would go very far towards producing an overthrow of the Democratic party, if they did not entirely accomplish it. These consequences were too natural not to be apprehended; and the last mentioned result was openly predicted by some and probably anticipated by others of my own friends, who yet voted for the experimental tariff bill without approving of it. Unless it should be repealed, or materially modified, its consequences now belong to the developments of the future; so I need not illustrate the grounds of my conviction by minuter statements. Let time test its correctness.

Fourth. In none of the tariff acts of the United States in former years was the industry of our own country burdened by discriminations made *against* home manufactures. Their policy was to build up and not to destroy, to protect and not to oppress. Not so the experimental tariff. And is it not a mistake to suppose that the republican people of North Carolina were at any time hostile to those acts merely because they were "*protective?*" Our hostility was aimed at the *extent* of the thing, not the *thing* itself; at *extreme* protection, not protection *per se.* With here and there an individual exception—for republicans in those days were allowed to differ—I boldly affirm that this was the republican doctrine of our State; and the people will know it to be true, when I remind them that it was precisely the point of our dispute with the Nullifiers. They were against protection *out and out:* we, the (Jackson) republican party of North Carolina in particular, went for *incidental* protection, *moderate* protection by a "judicious tariff." They were for declaring the tariff of 1828 and 1832 unconstitutional, and nullifying it because it *protected* manufactures. We thought it was unjust because the protection was *extreme*, but not unconstitutional, and that the "Union must be preserved." What the republican party of North Carolina thought then, I thought, and spoke, and wrote.

And, coming down to more recent events, let me say that McKay's bill of 1844 was a tariff of incidental protection, which you and I, and all the Democrats in Congress from North Carolina approved and sustained, and the people of our party in North Carolina nowhere opposed last year, and the press of the party defended up to the inauguration and afterwards, and even down to the day of the report from the present Secretary of the Treasury. Careful study, longer experience, and closer examination, have confirmed me in the faith of those times, fortified as it was by the authority of the administrations of *Washington*, and *Jefferson*, and *Madison*, and *Monroe*, and *Jackson*, all Southern republicans and Southern Presidents. Is consistency treason? It may be a misfortune to me that I was unable to change with the times, but it would be a crime to deny my faith. To avoid misrepresentation I give you the words of those wise, and eminent, and patriotic men. Hear Washington:

Extract of a speech of George Washington, President of the United States, to Congress, January 8, 1790.

"A free people ought not only to be armed, but disciplined; to which end a uniform and well-digested plan is requisite; and their safety and interest require that they should promote such *manufactories* as tend to render them independent of others for essential, particularly military supplies."

"The advancement of agriculture, commerce, and *manufactures, by all proper means, will not, I trust, need recommendation.*"

In accordance with this general recommendation, the House of Representatives passed a resolution directing the Secretary of the Treasury (Mr. Hamilton) to report to them upon the subject of manufactures, and particularly as to the means of promoting such as would tend to render the United States independent of foreign nations for military and other essential supplies; and his report was submitted in December, 1791, wherein he said:

"The expediency of manufactures in the United States, which was not long since deemed very questionable, appears at this time to be pretty generally admitted."—P. 123.

And again he said:

"A question has been made concerning the constitutional right of the Government of the United States to apply this species of encouragement, [to manufactures,] but there is certainly no good foundation for such a question."—P. 136.

And again he said:

"It is not uncommon to meet with an opinion, that, though the promoting of manufactures may be the interest of a part of the Union, it is contrary to that of another part. The Northern and Southern regions are sometimes represented as having adverse interests in this respect. Those are called manufacturing, these agricultural States; and a species of opposition is imagined to subsist between the manufacturing and agricultural interests.

"Ideas of a contrariety of interests between the Northern and Southern regions of the Union, are, in the main, as unfounded as they are mischievous. The diversity of circumstances on which such contrariety is usually predicated, authorizes a directly contrary conclusion. Mutual wants constitute one of the strongest links of political connexion; and the extent of these bears a natural proportion to the diversity in the means of mutual supply. Suggestions of an opposite complexion are ever to be deplored, as unfriendly to the steady pursuit of one great common cause, and to the perfect harmony of all its parts."—P. 134. (See State Papers, Finances, vol. 1, pages 123, 134, and 136.)

These were the doctrines of Washington, and of Washington's Administration. And now hear Washington again:

Extract of a speech of George Washington, President of the United States, to Congress, December 7, 1796.

"Congress have repeatedly, and not without success, directed their attention to the *encouragement of manufactures*. The object is of too much consequence not to ensure a *continuance* of their efforts in every way which shall appear eligible."

Hear Jefferson:

Extract of a Message from Thomas Jefferson, President of the United States, to Congress, November 8, 1808.

"The suspension of our foreign commerce, produced by the injustice of the belligerent powers, (of Europe,) and the consequent losses and sacrifices of our citizens, are subjects of just concern. The situation into which we have thus been forced, has impelled us to apply a portion of our industry and capital to internal manufactures and improvements. The extent of this conversion is daily increasing, and little doubt remains that the establishments formed and forming, will, under the auspices of cheaper materials and subsistence, the freedom of labor from taxation with us, and of PROTECTING DUTIES AND PROHIBITIONS, become permanent."

Hear Madison:

Extract of a Message from James Madison, President of the United States, to Congress, November 5, 1811.

"Although other subjects will press more immediately on your deliberations, a portion of them cannot but be well bestowed on the just and sound policy of securing to our manufactures the success they have attained, and are still attaining, in some degree, under the impulse of causes not permanent.

"Besides the reasonableness of saving our manufactures from sacrifices which a change of circumstances might bring on them, the national interest requires that, with respect to such articles at least as belong to our defence and our *primary* wants, we should not be left in unnecessary dependance on external supplies."

Extract of a Message from James Madison, President of the United States, to Congress, December 5, 1815.

"In adjusting the *duties on imports* to the object of revenue, the influence of the tariff on *manufactures* will necessarily present itself for consideration. However wise the theory may be which leaves to the sagacity and interests of individuals the application of their industry and resources, there are in this, as in other cases, exceptions to the general rule. Besides the condition, which the theory itself implies, of a reciprocal adoption by other nations, experience teaches that so many circumstances must concur in introducing and maturing manufacturing establishments, especially of the more complicated kinds, that a country may remain long without them, although sufficiently advanced, and in some respects even peculiarly fitted, for carrying them on with success. Under circumstances giving a powerful impulse to manufacturing industry, it has made among us a progress, and exhibited an efficiency, which justify the belief that, with a *protection not more than is due to the enterprising citizens whose interests are now at stake*, it will become, at an early day, not only safe against occasional competitions from abroad, but a source of domestic wealth, and even of external commerce. In selecting the branches more especially entitled to the public patronage, a preference is obviously claimed by such as will relieve the United States from a dependence on foreign supplies, ever subject to casual failures, for articles necessary for the public defence, or connected with the primary wants of individuals. It will be an additional recommendation of particular manufactures, where the materials of them are extensively drawn from our agriculture, and consequently impart and ensure to that great fund of national prosperity and independence, an encouragement which cannot fail to be rewarded."

Hear Monroe:

Extract of a Message from James Monroe, President of the United States, to Congress, December 7, 1819.

"*It is deemed of great importance to give encouragement to our domestic manufactures.* In what manner the evils which have been adverted to may be remedied, and how far it may be practicable in other respects to afford to them further encouragement, paying due regard to the other great interests of the nation, is submitting to the wisdom of Congress."

Extract of a Message from James Monroe, President of the United States, to Congress, December 3, 1822.

"From the best information that I have been able to obtain, it appears that our manufactures, though depressed immediately after the peace, have considerably increased, and are still increasing, under the encouragement given them by the tariff of 1816, and by subsequent laws. Satisfied I am, whatever may be the abstract doctrine in favor of unrestricted commerce, provided all nations would concur in it, and it was not liable to be interrupted by war, which has never occurred, and cannot be expected, that there are other strong reasons applicable to our situation and relations with other countries, which impose on us the obligation to *cherish and sustain our manufactures.* Satisfied, however, I likewise am, that the interest of every part of our Union, even of those most benefited by manufactures, requires that this subject should be touched with the greatest caution, and a *critical knowledge* of the *effect to* be produced by the *slightest change.* On full consideration of the subject in all its relations, I am persuaded that a further augmentation may now be made of the *duties* on certain foreign articles, *in favor of our own*, and without affecting injuriously any other interest."

Extract of a Message from James Monroe, President of the United States, to Congress, December 2, 1823.

"Having communicated my views to Congress, at the commencement of the last session, respecting the encouragement which ought to be given to our manufactures, and the principle on which it should be founded, I have only to add that those views remain unchanged; and that the present state of those countries with which we have the most immediate political relations and greatest commercial intercourse, tends to confirm them. Under this impression, I recommend a review of the *tariff*, for the purpose of affording such additional *protection* to those articles which we are prepared to *manufacture*, or which are more immediately connected with the defence and independence of the country."

Hear Jackson:

Extract of a Message from Andrew Jackson, President of the United States, to Congress, December 8, 1829.

"No very considerable change has occurred, during the recess of Congress, in the condition of either our agriculture, commerce, or manufactures.

"To regulate its conduct so as to promote equally the prosperity of these three cardinal interests, is one of the most difficult tasks of Government; and it may be regretted that the complicated restrictions which now embarrass the intercourse of nations, could not, by common consent, be abolished, and commerce allowed to flow in those channels to which individual enterprise—always its surest guide—might direct it. But we must ever expect selfish legislation in other nations, and are therefore compelled to adapt our own to their regulations, in the manner best calculated to avoid serious injury, and to harmonize the conflicting interests of our agriculture, our commerce, and manufactures. Under these impressions, I invite your attention to the existing tariff, believing that some of its provisions require modification.

"The general rule to be applied in graduating the duties upon articles of foreign growth or manufacture, is that which will place our own in fair competition with those of other countries; and *the inducement to advance even a step beyond this point are controlling in regard to those articles which are of primary necessity in time of war.* When we reflect upon the difficulty and delicacy of this operation, it is important that it should never be attempted but with the utmost caution. *Frequent legislation in regard to any branch of industry affecting its value, and by which its capital may be transferred to new channels, must always be productive of hazardous speculation and loss.*

"In deliberating, therefore, on these interesting subjects, local feelings and prejudices should be merged in the patriotic determination to promote the great interests of the whole. All attempts to connect them with the party conflicts of the day are necessarily injurious, and should be discountenanced. Our action upon them should be under the control of higher and purer motives. Legislation subjected to such influences can never be just, and will not long retain the sanction of a people whose active patriotism is not bounded by sectional limits, nor insensible to that spirit of concession and forbearance which gave life to our political compact, and still sustains it. Discarding all calculations of political ascendency, the North, the South, the East and the West should unite in diminishing any burden of which either may justly complain.

"The agricultural interest of our country is so essentially connected with every other, and so superior in importance to them all, that it is scarcely necessary to invite to it your particular attention. *It is principally as manufactures and commerce tend to increase the value of agricultural productions, and to extend their application to the wants and comforts of society, that they deserve the fostering care of government.*

"Looking forward to the period, not far distant, when a sinking fund will no longer be required, the duties on those articles of importation *which cannot come in competition with our own production, are the first that should engage the attention of Congress in the modification of the tariff. Of these, tea and coffee are the most prominent:* they enter largely into the consumption of the country, and have become articles of necessity to all classes."

Extract of a Message from Andrew Jackson, President of the United States, to Congress, December 7, 1830.

"Among the numerous causes of congratulation, the condition of our impost revenue deserves special mention, inasmuch as it promises the means of extinguishing the public debt sooner than was anticipated, and furnishes a strong illustration of the practical effects of the present tariff upon our commercial interests.

"The object of the tariff is objected to by some as unconstitutional; and it is considered by almost all as defective in many of its parts.

"The power to impose duties on imports originally belonged to the several states. The right to adjust those duties, with a view to the *encouragement of the domestic branches of industry*, is so completely incidental to that power, that it is difficult to suppose the existence of the one without the other. The states have delegated their whole authority over imports to the general government, without limitation or restriction, saving the very inconsiderable reservation relating to their inspection laws. This authority having thus entirely passed from the states, the right to exercise it for the purpose of protection does not exist in them; and, consequently, if it be not possessed by the general government, it must be extinct. Our political system would thus present the anomaly of a people stripped of the right to foster their own industry, and to counteract the most selfish and destructive policy which might be adopted by foreign nations. This surely cannot be the case. This indispensable power, thus surrendered by the states, must be within the scope of the authority on the subject expressly delegated to Congress.

"In this conclusion I am confirmed as well by the opinions of Presidents Washington, Jefferson, Madison and Monroe, who have each repeatedly recommended the exercise of this right under the Constitution, as by the uniform practice of Congress, the continued acquiescence of the states, and the general understanding of the people.

"That our deliberations on this interesting subject should be *uninfluenced by those partizan conflicts that are incident to free institutions, is the fervent wish of my heart.* To make this great question, which unhappily so much divides and excites the public mind, subservient to the short-sighted views of faction, must destroy all hope of settling it satisfactorily to the great body of the people and for the general interest. I cannot, therefore, in taking leave of the subject, too earnestly, for my own feelings or the common good, warn you against the blighting consequences of such a course."

Extract of a Message from Andrew Jackson, President of the United States, to Congress, December 6, 1831.

"The confidence with which the extinguishment of the public debt may be anticipated, presents an opportunity for carrying into effect more fully the policy in relation to import duties which has been recommended in my former messages. A modification of the tariff which shall produce a reduction of our revenue to the wants of the government, and an adjustment of the duties on imports with a view to equal justice in relation to all our national interests, and to the counteraction of foreign policy, so far as it may be injurious to those interests, is deemed to be one of the principal objects which demand the consideration of the present Congress. In the exercise of that spirit of concession and conciliation which has distinguished the friends of our Union in all great emergencies, it is believed that this object may be effected without injury to any national interest."

Now, the experimental tariff, as I interpret it, fundamentally violated this doctrine. It discriminated, but it did so against our domestic labor, and in that way and to that extent it made war upon the vital interests of the North. And pray, what inducements were offered to North Carolina by this experiment, that her senators should help to carry on the unnatural conflict? What but the naked desire for an apparent party unity where there was really no party concord. For North Carolina had no local or state interest which will be served or elevated by it. None, whatever.

The limits of this address will not allow of illustrations by a tedious detail of enumerated articles; I reserve that for a more suitable occasion; only remarking for the present, that if any should be disingenuous enough to deny this characteristic of the new tariff, no one who regards his reputation will venture to contradict the fact that the experimental tariff does not discriminate in *favor* of American manufactures; and not to discriminate in their favor moderately and reasonably, by a "live and let live" law of love amongst brethren of a common country, is the same thing in principle though not in degree as to discriminate *against* them. Verily, it appeared to me that its passage would be substituting the theories of yesterday, learned in the law office, for the experience of fifty years of our own government and the practice of all civilized nations, for the sake of perpetrating an experiment upon the people of the United States.

Fifth. The last objection I shall trouble you with is to the new principle that all "duties are to be laid ad valorem." It is not the least remarkable circumstance connected with the passage of the act, that this new *ad valorem* article in the democratic creed was supported by the sanction of no distinguished name but Henry Clay's; and Mr. Clay's friends say that even he has been misrepresented, to furnish the authority.

Another not unimportant circumstance is, that the people of my State have been commanded to dishonor me, as one not true to the doctrine of a party tariff of "ad valorem duties," and *therefore* treacherous to them; when I put it to your conscience that there are thousands and tens of thousands of good North Carolina Democrats, who, so far from having adopted it in their political creed, did never so much as hear of it until long since my election to the Senate! Let each one answer for himself. Did you ever understand it before? In sincerity, I declare that until after my election to the Senate I did not, and I presume you did not. But I think I understand it now, my countrymen, and I venture to guess that the more you know of it, and the longer it shall be tried, the less you will like it.

But let me tell you what it is. It is to lay duties or taxes upon goods imported from foreign countries, according to the value of the goods at the market from whence they come—the *law* fixing the per cent., and the *collector* of it ascertaining the foreign value of whatever is taxed, viz. the sum of the tax—for which he is not responsible to you, but to the Treasury Department. And a specific duty is the same tax imposed upon the same article—the *law* itself, however, distinguishing the value, by establishing the particular sum of taxation, and leaving nothing for the *collector* to do but to weigh or measure the quantity; wherein, if he be guilty of fraud, he may probably be convicted, or if disposed to oppress the merchant, he can be prevented. In short, where the tax is *specific*, the collector only weighs or measures the quantity; where it is *ad valorem*, he not only measures or weighs the quantity, but likewise determines, upon his own judgment, the foreign value of the things imported. The uniform rule, as approved by your Government, has been heretofore that of making all the duties specific which can be made so, and let the others be ad valorem; but to reduce the list of *ad valorem* duties, from time to time, by adding to the list of *specific*. The experimental tariff condemns and repudiates this policy altogether, and prescribes a new one, of having *all* the duties ad valorem, and *none* of them specific. With this explanation, you can have no difficulty in comprehending my objections to the new principle of the experimental tariff.

It was a maxim of the Revolution, that "representation and taxation should go together." Now, this is a great principle of liberty, never to be despised; and the abrogation of it cannot be necessary to the interest of the Republic. But it means nothing, unless it creates the duty of laying taxes by the *law*, and not by the *officers* who collect it; so that the citizen who reads the law, may, as far as practicable, see in it what it taxes him; officers, too, whom the people have no agency in appointing, and cannot remove—officers who, in assessing values, exercise their own discretion, and whose individual judgment, in this country, as to the market value of property in all foreign lands, cannot be successfully impeached, because the witnesses to do it, live abroad, and cannot be got here; and if they could, it would still be almost impossible to convict the officer of *intentional* falsehood. It must be proved that he was wrong, and knew it too. Is not this new doctrine, then, more than a slight departure from this maxim of the Republic? Shall it be approved, upon the notion that this great principle of a representative democracy has become impracticable? Shall we sanction the pretence that the *people's representatives* will cheat them in adopting the *specific* duties, and assume at the same time that custom-house officers will be more scrupulous and more just to you in fixing the values under a system of *ad valorem* duties? Ought such a departure from a great and fundamental doctrine of representative government to be tolerated, much less engrafted permanently into the laws of a free people, without unavoidable necessity, and sanctified as a part of our democratic faith, without notice to the people? A step or two further, and we shall be carried to a point where Congress can do nothing but declare the aggregate revenues which may be levied for the Government, and leave the Treasury Department to collect them as may seem best to its officers, and according to its rules.

I come now to show that what the experimental tariff makes the *rule* of taxation, the fathers of the Republic made the *exception*. What they declared was a fruitful mother of frauds, it has adopted as the only parent of our revenues!

In 1795, when *Washington* was President, Alexander Hamilton, his Secretary of the Treasury, in a report to the House of Representatives, used the following words, viz:

> "According to the present laws imposing duties on articles imported into the United States, not much short of one-third of the whole amount of the duties is derived from articles rated *ad valorem*.
>
> "In other nations, where this branch of revenue, as with us, is of principal or very considerable consequence, and where no peculiarity of situation has tended to keep the rates of duty low, experience has led to contract more and more the number of articles rated *ad valorem*, and of course to extend the number of those rated specifically—that is, according to weight, measure, or other rules of quantity.
>
> "The reason of this is obvious: it is to guard against evasions, which infallibly happen in a greater or less degree when duties are high. It is impossible for the merchants of any country to have manifested more probity than those of the United States on this subject; and it is firmly believed that there never was one in which illicit purchases to the disadvantage of the revenue have obtained so little as hitherto in this. Yet would it be a delusive expectation that, with duties so considerable as those which now exist, a disposition will not be experienced in some individuals, who carry on our import trade, to evade the payment of them, and this to an extent sufficient to make it prudent to guard with circumspection, and by every reasonable precaution, against the success of such attempts. It is needless to repeat, that this will contribute as much to the interest of the fair trader as to that of the revenue.
>
> "It is believed that in our system the method of rating *ad valorem* could with convenience be brought within a much *narrower* compass, and it is evident that to do so will contribute materially to the *security of the revenue*."—(See American State Papers, Finance, vol. i, page 348.)

In 1801, under Jefferson's administration, Albert Gallatin, Secretary of the Treasury, in a report to the Senate, said:

> "In order to guard, as far as possible, against the value of goods being underrated in the invoices, it would be eligible to lay *specific* duties on all such articles now paying duties ad valorem as may be susceptible of that alteration."—(See American State Papers, Finance, vol. i, page 702.)

In 1816, under Madison's administration, A. J. Dallas, the Secretary of the Treasury, in a report to the House of Representatives, and in answer to a resolution of the preceding session, after a thorough examination, said:

> "That articles imported to a great amount should rather be charged with *specific* duties upon their weight and measure, in order to guard against evasions and *frauds*, than with ad valorem duties on their value."—(See American State Papers, Finance, vol. iii, page 91.)

In 1818, under Monroe's administration, William H. Crawford, the Secretary of the Treasury, in answer to a resolution of 1817, directing him to report such measures as might be necessary for the more effectual execution of the revenue laws, said:

> "In order to provide an adequate remedy against the frauds and evasions which already exist, and to prevent their further increase, it is respectfully submitted," &c.

And then, after recommending twenty-four additional laws, he adds:

> "Whatever may be the reliance that ought to be placed in the efficacy of the foregoing provisions, it is certainly prudent to *diminish*, as far as practicable, the list of articles paying *ad valorem* duties."—(See American State Papers, vol. iii, page 236.)

These opinions of the great and eminent men of our country, were never controverted, so far as we know, until the present time; and upon what principle of patriotism or of democracy was I expected to refuse to them the homage of my confidence and support? What should have induced me to forego the conclusions of my own judgment, fortified by such authority and confirmed by the experience of the government for half a century? In all my conferences with senators, no better reason was given to me for it than that the bill would destroy the tariff of 1842; but the remedy was as bad, if not worse, than the disease, and the operation seemed to me almost as unwise as to "cut off the head for a cure of the toothache."

I have now explained to you the origin, and reminded you of the character, of McKay's bill of 1844. I have intimated to you the nature of those party, not to say those moral obligations, which were contracted antecedent to the elections of 1844; and I have told you how they were imposed upon me, as one of your senators, in my best attempts to sustain the Democratic party, by harmonizing the country generally upon a distracting conflict of local interests. I have also shown you how the tariff bill proposed at this session was altogether a different one, and every way objectionable in its details and in its principles, and in the time of its operation, and, I might have added, in the manner it was urged upon the Senate; and how utterly impossible it was with me, on account of all these things, to vote for the bill without amendment, even along with other Democratic senators, with our mouths gagged, our judgments unconvinced, and our deliberations forestalled, upon a question which I always thought to be a national one, above the dominion of any political party whatever.

The remaining portion of this address relates solely to a justification of Mr. Haywood's course in resigning his seat in the Senate. In omitting its publication, for the reasons already stated, it is but justice to Mr. H. to say, that even admitting the obligation to instructions to be binding, Mr. Haywood fully justifies himself, from the tenor of the instructions, which requires no more of him, than to resign if he could not conscientiously follow them—and moreover, Mr. Haywood gives many other facts and arguments, which show him to be what he has ever been considered—a conscientious man, acting upon the purest principles. Ed.

AMERICAN LEGISLATION FOR THE BENEFIT OF ENGLAND.

We have more than once stated our firm and unalterable belief that the Experimental Tariff of 1846 would deeply injure the United States, and in the same degree, benefit England, by substituting her labor for our own.

In confirmation of this belief we insert the following article, which has just reached us, in the London Mining Journal of the first of August.

This is only the commencement of what we are destined to see before very long, in a much greater degree.

It comes to us first in congratulations to the parties concerned in the manufacture of iron, and a short paragraph from the Manchester Guardian ; but the next steamer will bring us more of the same tenor, congratulating the manufacturers of Birmingham, Sheffield, Leeds, Manchester, Huddersfield, &c. &c.

What a scene is this ? Our heroic ancestry waded through blood to secure our independence, and an American Executive and his Secretary of the Treasury, recommend a law, which Congress enacts, to give a stimulus to British industry, to the destruction of our own.

Not a solitary approval of this ruinous measure is heard from our own people, while the people of England are rejoicing. What a commentary upon the "Experimental Tariff," as it is justly christened by Senator Haywood ! !

We wait the arrival of the next steamer, to furnish proof of what we have heretofore said, namely, that the law of 1846 is not an American, but a British Tariff.

Opinion of the American Tariff Bill in England.

[From the Manchester Guardian.]

Should this important measure become a law, as we have now every reason to believe, it will exercise a most important influence upon the commerce between the United States and this country ; the reduction of duties upon most of our staple productions being very considerable, and upon none, perhaps, more so than upon the manufactures of cotton. Under the existing law, the duty on these manufactures (nominally 35 per cent.) is levied, not upon the real value, but upon certain fictitious valuations, which serve to raise the actual duty in many cases to 80, 90, or 100 per cent. Under the provisions of the bill now before the Senate, the duty on embroidered and tambored cottons will be 30 per cent.; on cotton velvets 20 per cent.; and on all other manufactures of cotton, 25 per cent. ad valorem. Under a duty of this amount, the import of the finer qualities of English cotton manufactures, and especially of good prints, muslins, and probably fine shirtings, will be large; and we may expect the trade in those articles to be restored to something like the amount at which it stood some years ago. The reduction in the duty on iron, and on woollen and worsted manufactures, are also important; but, as we shall probably have decisive intelligence as to the fate of the bill at an early period, we shall, for the present, abstain from any further remarks upon it.

MINING AND OTHER INTELLIGENCE.

[*From the London Mining Journal of August 1st.*]

In connection with the foreign demand for iron, it is satisfactory to hear the American tariff has *passed the House of Representatives* by a majority of 19, and is now before the Senate. The new scale of duties upon iron, as sent to the Senate, provides for iron in bars, blooms, bolts, hoops and pigs, rods, slabs, or other form not otherwise provided for; castings of iron, old and scrap iron, and vessels of cast-iron, to pay a duty of 30 per cent. *ad valorem*. We transcribe the tariff of 1842, at present in operation, which shows at an exchange to equal 4s. 2d. per dollar. Pig-iron to pay a duty of 1*l.* 17s. 6d. per ton; bar-iron, 3*l.* 10s. 10d. to 5*l.* 4s. 2d. per ton; sheet, boiler plates, and some other sorts of manufactured iron, 11*l.* 13s. 4d. per ton, with duties more or less on other descriptions; iron for railways, since 3d March, 1843, (as provided in the Act of 1842,) having been chargeable with the duty imposed on rolled iron of 5*l.* 4s. 2d. per ton. The passing of the new tariff by the Senate must, consequently, be of considerable importance to the British iron trade. In the House of Lords, on Monday last, 55 railway Acts of Parliament for new lines, extensions, &c., received the Royal assent; and the meeting of the directors of the London and York was unanimous for carrying out the works of this railway (308 miles) with all possible despatch—the year 1850 being named as the period for its completion.

We have again to congratulate the iron trade on a period of prosperity *not hitherto experienced;* and the continued favourable weather for the harvest, with the prospect of tranquillity at home and abroad in political affairs, cannot fail to have a beneficial influence on *all judiciously directed railway enterprises.*

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METAL.

London, July 31, 1845.

	£	s.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	£	s.	d.
Iron—Bar *a*. Wales..ton	8	5—	8	10	0	*Copper*—Ordin. sheets lb	0	0—	0	0	10½
" London....	0	0—	9	5	0	" bottoms.	0	0—	0	0	11½
Nail rods "	0	0—	10	5	0	*Tin*—Com. blocks *g*.cwt	0	0—	4	12	0
Hoop (Staf.)	0	0—	11	10	0	" bars	0	0—	4	13	6
Sheet " " ..	0	0—	12	10	0	Refined	0	0—	4	15	0
Bars " " ..	10	10—	11	0	0	Straits *h*..........	4	11—	4	12	0
Rails, average...	9	10—	10	0	0	Banca	4	14—	4	14	6
Welsh cold blast foundry pig	0	0—	5	5	0	*Tin Plates*—Ch. IC*i*, box	1	9—	1	10	0
						" IX. ...	1	15—	1	16	0
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde	3	12 6	3	15	0	Coke, IC........	1	4 6-	1	5	0
Russian CCND *c*..	0	0—	16	0	0	" IX....	1	10 6-	1	11	0
" PSI.....	0	0—	16	0	0	*Lead*—Sheet *k*.......ton	0	0-	19	10	0
" Gourieff..	14	5—	14	10	0	Pig, refined......	0	0-	21	0	0
" Archangel	0	0—	13	12	6	" common	0	0-	18	15	0
Swedish *d*, on the spot.	11	0—	11	10	0	" Spanish, in bd	17	10-	18	0	0
" Steel, fagt. .	0	0—	15	10	0	" American....	0	0-	17	10	0
" " kegs *e*	14	0—	14	5	0	*Spelter*—(Cake)*l*	0	0-	18	10	0
Copper—Tile *f*........	0	0—	92	0	0	*Zinc*—(Sheet)*m* export*	0	0-	28	0	0
Tough cake......	0	0—	93	0	0	*Quicksilver*,*n*.........lb	0	0—	0	4	6
Best selected.....	0	0—	96	0	0	*Refined Metal*.......ton	4	15—	5	0	0

a Discount 2½ per cent. *b* Net cash. *c* Discount 2½ per cent. *d* Ditto. *e* In kegs ½ and ⅝-inch. *f* Discount 3 per cent. *g* Ditto 2½ per cent. *h* Net cash. in bond. *i* Discount 3 per cent. *k* Ditto 2½ per cent. *l* Net Cash. *m* Discount 1½ per cent. *n* Discount 1¼ per cent. * For home use it is 32*l*. per ton.

[*From our Correspondent.*]

Iron (Welsh and Staffordshire) is in good demand at quotations. Scotch pigs have improved within the last few days, and large sales have been made at 72s. 6d. to 75s.

In *Copper* and *Lead* there has been but little doing since last week's *Mining Journal.*

Tin, both English and foreign, and *Tin Plates*, are active at present prices.

Some sales have been made of foreign *Spelter* this week, at 18*l.* 10s., and holders are beginning to ask 2s. 6d. per ton more.

[*Communicated by Messrs. Whitcomb and Barton, Old Broad-street.*]

English bar-iron continues in great request, at a shade under our quotations, and large sales made during the week, delivered at the port. Welsh and Staffordshire pig-iron are rather more sought after, and holders are asking higher prices. Scotch pig-iron very firm at 72s. 6d. for mixed Nos., and 75s. for all No. 1.—cash in 14 days. —Sales of spelter reported at 18*l.* 7s. 6d.—to day holders have refused 18*l.* 10s.

Dudley, July 29.—The temporary dulness which has characterised the iron trade the last few months may now be said to be over. Orders are coming in plentifully, and briskness begins again to be the order of the day. Considering the good prospects of the trade for many years hence, the probability is, that an advance in prices will shortly take place. It should be understood, that though there has been a slackness in general, prices have been maintained, except by a few houses, whose terms of doing business afforded no criterion of selling prices.

Birmingham, July 30.—Since last quarter-day prices have been fully sustained, and with increased prospects of an abundant trade for some time to come. Orders are still daily arriving in this district faster than they can be executed, owing to the quantity required, and the difficulty of keeping the men at work. The heat has again become intense, and it is impossible for the puddlers and others engaged at the furnaces to work the ordinary hours of labor. In addition to some further railway contracts thrown into the market, our merchants have lately received good foreign orders. Bar iron is in demand for some of the colonies, and shipments to a considerable extent are being made.

The Copper Trade is also in a healthy condition, and the understanding among the smelters for maintaining a uniformity of price, gives steadiness to operations. Some useful regulations have recently been adopted here in reference to the terms of payment. Heretofore the rate of discount was in favor of buyers in London and Liverpool, but it is now understood for wholesale transactions, the terms are assimilated throughout the country. It has been rumored, that English copper smelters have been selling copper on the continent much cheaper than they have allowed it to find its way into this market; and the effect of this will be, to afford the foreign manufacturers a decided advantage over those of this country. For this, however, there can be no remedy. It is pretty generally evident, that a desire prevails among the mining interests to undersell the South American and other foreign ores. Many of the smelters are also copper miners, and they are content to get the present good profit upon the copper, and sell the ore at a low price, by which the whole of the smelters are benefited. Till copper is now 92; wholesale less 2½ per cent., one month cash.

GLASGOW PIG-IRON TRADE.

July 25.—We have not had so much excitement this week as during the preceding two weeks; but a good business has been done at last week's quotations, and in some cases prices have been 1s. in favor of buyers. Holders and makers are generally very sanguine of a good trade in autumn, and are stiff for former rates. We quote 69s. to 70s. for No. 3; 72s. to 72s. 6d. for mixed Nos., and 74s. to 75s. for all No. 1, cash, free on board.

Pig-iron exported from January 1, *till June* 30, 1846.

Total Amount shipped.	*Tons.*
From Broomielaw—from January 1 till April 30	41,980
From Port Dundas and Kirkintilloch—ditto	51,339
From Broomielaw—in May last	21,370
From Port Dundas and Kirkintilloch—ditto	21,384
From Broomielaw—in June last	14,850
From Port Dundas and Kirkintilloch	18,166
Total exports from January till June, 1846	Tons 169,089

The above includes what has been sent in scows to Grangemouth, or otherwise.

THE IRON TRADE.

This trade partakes of the quietness existing in almost every other. A large steady consumption is still going on, and the quantity of iron produced during the last month has been less than during any month within the past year. This has arisen principally from the hot weather which has been experienced; in some of the iron mills and forges, the temperature has ranged from 120 to 140 degrees Fahrenheit. To work in such an atmosphere is found to be impossible. At the preparatory meeting, previous to quarter day, which was held in Staffordshire last week, it was determined that prices for the ensuing quarter should remain as before, but as some of the makers are getting short of orders, it is impossible, unless the demand should improve, that some concessions will be made by the most needy.—But this will most likely be only temporary, as a general opinion prevails that prices must improve in the autumn, if not at an earlier period. Pig-Iron may be quoted at 70s. in Glasgow, and 80s. in Liverpool; Bar-Iron in Wales £8 to £8 6s. per ton, in Liverpool £8 10s; hoops £10 10s.; sheets £11 10s.; best plates £12 10s.—Tinned Plates are very dull, and are lower; 1 C Charcoal 30s. per box; Coke and inferior descriptions at 3s. to 6s. per box less. Foreign iron is not much in demand. The public mind is so filled with contemplating the possible consequences of the free trade measures recently legalized, that they are not yet prepared to operate upon them with confidence; and the more the question is considered, whether nationally or universally, the more important it seems to become.

ANTHRACITE IRON TRADE.

Little more than five years have elapsed since the first successful experiments were made in this state to manufacture Pig-Iron with anthracite coal; and no considerable advances were made in it until the fostering influence of the trade of '42 was brought to bear upon it. The results have been astonishing. A new and most important trade has been, as it were, created. We learn from an intelligent source that we have now, in blast, thirty furnaces and eight more in progress of erection, capable of manufacturing 116,000 tons of iron, within one year from this date. This iron commanded recently in this market from $25 to $30 per ton; which will give as the annual aggregate product of this new branch of business, $3,248,000. Such are the fruits of the tariff.

Within the same period fifteen rolling mills have been erected in our State, for the manufacture of anthracite iron, whose united power can produce annually 46,000 tons of rail-road, boiler, plate and flat and round bar iron; which at the low rate of $70 per ton amounts to the handsome sum of $3,200,000. Here, then, we have the vast sum of six millions and a half of dollars as the value of the annual product of this single branch of the trade. How many thousands of laborers are thus sustained; how many thousands of farmers thus find a profitable market; how large an amount of trade is thus encouraged; how many mechanics are in consequence employed, we are not prepared to say. But this much we can say, that all, *all* these advantages will, under the British bill, like the baseless fabric of a vision, fade away.—[*Phil. North. Am.*

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

Our files by the steamer not having been accessible to us until just going to press, we shall not be able to make as many notes of their contents as usual.

SCIENTIFIC.

The Edinburgh Philosophical Journal for August, has an article on the annual motions of the earth's crust, the very title of which conveys an idea doubtless new to most of our readers. The amount of the movement cannot yet be ascertained.

A new substance has been obtained from cochineal, which bears a remarkable resemblance to another lately produced by Liebig, through the action of potassa on caseine.

We notice the report of a patent case involving a new principle in the manufacture of carpets. On the old plan, every yarn was of a uniform color, and there were as many yarns of different colors opposite to any one point of the carpet as there were colors in the carpet. Thus, if there were five colors in any one carpet, only one would appear at any one point, the other four being suppressed or hid in weaving. The face of the fabric therefore showed only one-fifth of the whole valuable worsted yarn. But now, by Mr. Whytock's invention, the yarns are spread over a cylinder, and marked in colors, according to a pattern, and then in making up a warp, one yarn being taken from each set and placed in its proper place in the warp, the accumulation of the elements of the pattern would present a warp thereon as if it had been printed by a block, and in this way the most elaborate patterns may be produced. At Halifax, Yorkshire, a manufactory on this principle is carried on extensively, and children do a great part of the work. As our own carpet makers have reason to fear a decline of their business under the new tariff, it may be well for them to consult this case, and see if they have an opportunity of introducing the principle.

A continental chemist, Dr. Gorup Besanez, has found in dark colored biliary calculi, and in the human bile itself, distinct traces of copper. In blood we are told there is iron, and now in the bile there is found copper. Who knows but that Man may be reduced by some new Davy to a metallic base?

Methods have been discovered in France, to ascertain the presence and weight of copper in the ore, by ascertaining its tints after a certain process of solution. The process is too scientific to be interesting to a general reader. It may be found in the Chemical Gazette for August, and would be of immense value in ascertaining the richness of the Superior ores, which are now analysed at a distance from the mines, and at much expense.

In the Nautical Magazine, we find a paper by Dr. Kelly, who describes the mirages of the St. Lawrence, and as he gives the explanation of the various kinds in a simple and intelligible form, we transcribe it in his own words. "The mirages of the St. Lawrence are of two kinds. In one, which is the mirage of the arctic regions, the horizon is elevated, the forms of objects are distorted, and frequently two, three, and even as many as five images of the same object are seen, alternately erect and inverted, the lowest always being erect. This kind of mirage is only met when the water is *colder* than the air. In the other kind of mirage, that of the desert, the horizon is depressed, distant points of land seem raised to the air, the form of objects is seldom materially changed, there are seen more than two images of an object, and when a second is seen, the lowest is always inverted, the upper erect."

Havana marble is now imported into England.

On the German rail-roads there are 296 locomotive engines, 194 of English manufacture, 57 German, and 29 American.

Mitchell's screw pile light-house has been adopted in England.

In 1814 there was but one steamer in the whole British empire, now there are one thousand steamers of that country.

The Sphyx man of war, is fitted with a pair of oscillating engines of 500 horse power, the largest ever made on this principle.

Potatoes are now so preserved under Edward's patent, as to keep in all climates, and for any period.

A curious electric clock has been placed at Edinburgh, by Mr. Bain, of which a pendulum in Glasgow regulates the dial wheels and hands in Edinburgh.

An English geologist, Commander Morton, has offered a new theory to account for the columns of the celebrated Giant's Causeway. The usual explanation of these, is that of their being actually molten basalt. But Mr. Morton thinks they are petrified bamboos!

There have been built in England of late, some mammoth locomotives. One called the Goliah, for the Sheffield and Manchester railway, has cylinders 18 inches in diameter, two feet stroke. The size of boilers is not given, but it is expected this engine will draw 1000 tons on a level, at the rate of 20 miles an hour.

The French government is about to expend £50,000 for the erection of a new Museum of Natural History, and the English government £30,000 in a building to contain a Museum of Economic Geology, a mining record office, and for the geological surveys. The nearest approach which has been that of the liberal sagacity of the British government, has been that of the State of New-York. Our late surveys and our state museum are honorable monuments of our scientific progress. And the men connected with these works are all eminent and well known. The English museum, to which we have alluded, will be sustained by the services and reputation of such men as De la Beche, Phillips, Forbes, Smyth, Playfair, and Hunt! We trust that the Smithsonian Institute, at Washington, will fall into as able hands as these.

Dr. Leichardt and his party, who two years ago undertook a geographical journey in Australia, and whose long absence was giving rise to many fears, returned to Sidney last December. One of the party was killed by the natives, and great sufferings were undergone by the survivors. The researches made were successful.

At a meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society, an interesting paper was read, describing the manner in which an arc of longitude between Greenwich and Valentia was measured. The details are exceedingly curious.

Diamond dust has recently come into great demand, as an effectual means of sharpening razors.

An estimate has recently been made of the amount of copper, bronze and bell-metal coins now circulating as money in France, and it appears their value is thirty millions of francs.

Marsh, the chemist, whose tests for arsenic are now adopted as authority in the science of medical jurisprudence, is dead.

Mr. McGeachy, Crown Surveyor of the island of Jamaica, has published suggestions on the best method of rapid communication between the eastern and western hemispheres. Steam is, of course, the agent.

The horse's foot is made the subject of a good article in the last London Quarterly Review.

A curious paper is to be found in the last number of the Gentleman's Magazine, the subject,—"Genealogy physically considered." Certain propositions are there laid down, which, to say the least, are very curious.

The mines of Cornwall employ one-fourth of its entire population, and produce more than half of all the metals in the United Kingdom. The wages paid to the operatives in copper ore, are £500,000 per annum; and the value of the products of their industry is just three times as much, annually. The steam engines consume every year 80,000 tons of coal; and the mine owner, Mr. Treffry, employs 7000 persons.

The following lines of railways are now in full operation in France:

	Distance Miles.	Time. h. m.
Paris to Versailles, right bank	13½	0 30
" " left bank	12½	0 30
" St. Germain	12½	0 30
" Rouen	86	4 00
" Orleans	79	4 00
To Valenciennes and thence to Brussels	133	(not regular.)
Strasburgh to Basle	88	5 00
Mulhouse to Thann	12½	1 00
Bordeaux to La Teste	32	——
Montpelier to Cette	17½	0 50
Lyons to St. Etienne	33½	4 00
St. Etienne to Roanne	42	4 00
Nismes to Alaix	31	2 00
Alaix to Grand Combe	11	0 30
Nismes to Beaucaire	16	1 00

Besides these, other important lines are in progress of construction, such as the continuation of the Paris and Rouen Railway, by two branches, to Havre and Dieppe; a branch of the Northern Railway from Amiens to Boulogne and Calais; another from Lyons to Paris, and from Paris to Marseilles. It is supposed the entire distance between London and Paris will yet be travelled in seven hours.

From statistical returns we learn that, in 1844, there were born in Paris:

Legitimate children	21,526
Illegitimate do.	10,430
32½ per cent. of births in Paris are, of course, of the illegitimate class.	
The total number of deaths for the same years, was	27,360

We do not perceive any inventions or discoveries of moment, for the last month. The astronomers are very busy, but no great movement has taken place in the arts or sciences.

LITERARY.

We find a work has been published in England, called "An Historical and Critical View of the Speculative Philosophy of Europe in the Nineteenth Century," by Mr. Morell. The author is a learned man, and has long devoted himself to the study of philosophy. He visited Germany and France to study and understand the various systems of the speculatists. It is said this work contains an amount of valuable information on this subject which would scarcely be credited. Our readers who hear so much said of these systems, will no doubt, like a brief analysis of their progress. Kant, according to Morell, opposed the scepticism of his age, and sought to remove the fundamental questions of ontology, morals and religion, in a region beyond the reach of ordinary logic choppers, and keep them there. He thought that the different aspects under which we saw objects, were produced by these laws of thought, and that the laws were worth our study.

Jacobi followed, and laid down a fundamental principle of faith or intuition, an inward sense, a spiritual faculty capable of a direct and immediate revolution of supersensuous things. Jacobi mixed the mystical with the transcendental. Kant excluded it. The persons who followed Jacobi were called Jacobian Kantists, such as Bouterwek, Krug, Fries and Calker. Each of these wrote something peculiar to himself.

Fichte, a name more familiar, followed with a system of Idealism. Schlegel succeeded with a subjective hypothesis pushed to the extreme. His lectures recognized a four-fold revelation: conscience, nature, scripture, history. Next came Schleiermacher, who pronounced each individual a distinct microcosm, having his own views, emotions and religion; individual consciousness, revealing the truth.

Schelling and Hegel came next. The former founding a large scheme on the doctrine of intuition, too complicated to be explained in a few paragraphs.

Hegel resolved everything into a *process* of thought.

The last Foreign Quarterly contains a long and elaborate review of the writings of Charles Sealsfield, in which the authenticity of his writings and rare merit are both vindicated. The same number contains a biography of Herder, which is a valuable contribution to literature.

We notice the death of M. H. Barker, Esq., known for his popular writings over the signature of the "Old Sailor."

A poem, called the Modern Orlando, (Cantos 1 to 7,) has appeared, which is racy, very witty, spirited, and gentlemanly in its character. It comes nearer Lord Byron's Don Juan than anything we have ever seen.

The Three Students, a novel, by William Hughes, is announced as published, and having considerable merit.

"Gastronomy," is again elevated to a place in the thoughts of scholars, by a famous work just out, from the pen, we had almost said spoon, of Soyer, cook of the London Reform Club. Civilization and cookery seem to go too much together.

Judith is the name of a poem, in seven parts, in the last number of the New Monthly, and is beautifully written.

The Magazines of the month of August, contain an unusual number of profound, learned, witty and ingenious articles. We are struck with admiration at the great amount of talent displayed in them. Frazer, Blackwood, Tait, the New Monthly, the United Service, are really superior in the quality of their contents, and we cannot help contrasting, with regret too, their useful and instructive character with the too light and trivial one of our own magazines. We have more readers in the United States than in any other country in the world, and yet our periodical literature is by no means what it should be. If the public would be a little more discriminating, a good change might be effected; but at present, a magazine with fashion plates, bad poetry, and worse tales, may get up a circulation of 20,000, while a work of real value can scarcely exist.

FINE ARTS.

Smargiassi is now the greatest painter of landscapes in Naples; and Palezzi is equally eminent as a painter of cattle.

Dr. Retzius, a Swedish orientalist, has left Stockholm, for the purpose of examining the Turkish, Persian and Arabian relics in the museums of France, Germany and Spain.

Mr. Simm's views of American literature are much approved by English critics.

The Art Union, for August, contains an account of the Iron Works of Coal Brook Dale, with drawings of very beautiful furniture of metal manufactured there.

We find the continental states much excited by the statuary and paintings recently produced by their great modern artists.

Downing's work on Landscape Gardening, is highly spoken of by the English critics.

MONTHLY LIST OF PATENTS.

List of Patents issued from the 21st of July to the 20th August, 1846, inclusive, viz:

To Tappan Townsend, of Albany, N. Y., for improvement in Warming Railroad Cars. Patented 24th July, 1846.

To Elizur L. Beoth, of Canandaigua, N. Y., for improvement in Threshing Machines. Pat'd 24th July, 1846

To Allen Eldred, of Oppenheim, N. Y., for improvement in Potatoe Ploughs. Patented 24th July, 1846.

To Almos L. Reed, of Pittsburgh, Pa., for improvement in Feeding Nail Plates. Patented 24th July, 1846.

To Joseph Greenleaf, of North Yarmouth, Me., for improvement in Washing Machines. Patented 24th July, 1846.

To James Atwater, of New Haven, Conn., for improvement in Door Locks. Patented 24th July, 1846.

To Richard Flint, of Meriden, Ct., for improvement in Rat-tail Files. Patented 24th July, 1846.

To Addison Smith, of Perrysburgh, Ohio, for improvement in Magnetic Fire Alarms. Patented 24th July, 1846.

To Charles F. Johnson, of Oswego, N. Y., for improvement in Turret Clocks, Patented 28th July, 1846.

To H. D. Reynolds, of Mill-Hall, Pa., for improvement in Smut Machines. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To Charles Edward Jacot, of New-York City, for improvement in Lever Escapements. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To Ross Winans, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in Locomotive Carriages. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To Jonathan Knowles, of Lowell, Mass., for improvement in Children's Chairs and Wagons. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To Moses Miller, of Fort Ann, N. Y., for improvement in Sleighs. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To William Hatch, of Medford, Mass., for improvement in Spike and Nail Machines. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To Evens Backus, of Brooklyn, N. Y., for improvement in Stoves. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To Theodore F. Engelbrecht & George F. Skiff, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Fish Hooks. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To Smith Groom, of Troy, N. Y., for improvement in Machinery for Cutting Threads on Screws and Nuts. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To Elijah H. Danforth, of Busti, N. Y., for improvement in Horse Yokes. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To David Saunders, Senr., of Cincinnati, Ohio, James George Bissett, of Covington, Ky., & Samuel Saunders, of Pittsburgh, Pa., for improvement in the Manufacture of Tyres for Car Wheels. Patented 28th July, 1846.

To Augustus McBurth, of New-York City, for improvement in Veneering, (assigned to Timothy R. Hibbard.) Patented 28th July, 1846,

To Samuel Kern, of Strasburg, Va., for improvement in Surveyor's Compasses. Patented 31st July, 1846.

To Samuel Miller & George Roller, of Manchester, P. O., Md., for improvement in Tempering Clay. Patented 31st July, 1846.

To Lorenzo B. Glover, of Easton, Ct., for improvement in Corn Shellers. Patented 31st July, 1846.

To Jonathan Bennet, of Amenia, N. Y., for improvement in Shingle Machines. Patented 31st July, 1846.

To Jason L. Burdick, of Norwich, N. Y., for improvement in Heating Water in Vats. Patented 31st July, 1846.

To Gibbons Gray, of Westchester, Pa., for improvement in Holding up the Tails of Horses after Nicking. Patented 31st July, 1846.

To Levi Kettinger, of East Greenville, Ohio, for improvement in Rat Traps. Patented 8th August, 1846.

To Alfred Stillman, of New-York city, for improvement in Machinery for Crushing Sugar Cane. Patented 8th August, 1846.

To George E. Waring, of Stamford, Ct., and R. E. Peterson, of New-York, (administrators of Alexander S. Wolcott, deceased,) and John Johnson, of New-York, for improvement in Machinery for Spinning. Patented 8th August, 1846.

To William Leighton, of Portsmouth, N. H., for improvement in Enema Chairs. Patented 8th August, 1846.

To Ovando Hurlbut, of Buffalo, N.Y., for improvement in Truss Pads. Patented 8th August, 1846.

To Patrick S. Devlan, John Hancock and Cheselden S. Wood, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Oiling Gudgeons. Patented 8th August, 1846.

To Thomas A. Davies, of New-York city, for improvement in Clocks. Patented 12th August, 1846.

To John Greenwood, John Mercer & John Barnes, of England, for improvement in Preparing Stannate of Potassa and Soda. Patented 12th August, 1846.

To Joseph R. Morris, of New Haven, Ct., for improvement in Hot Air Furnaces. Patented 12th August, 1846.

To Edwin Thayer, of Chatham, N. Y., for improvements in Brakes for Cars. Patented 12th August, 1846.

To Bancroft Woodcock, of Wheeling, Va., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 12th August, 1846.

To Frederick H. Bartholomew, of New-York city, for improvement in Hydrants. Patented 12th August, 1846.

To Horace Childs, of Henniker, N. H., for improvement in Truss Bridges. Patented 12th August, 1846.

To Frederick Harbach, of Pittsfield, Mass., for improvement in Bridges. Patented 12th August, 1846.

To James Munsell, of Painted Post, N. Y., for improvement in Mortising Machines. Patented 12th August, 1846.

To Erastus B. Bigelow, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Power Looms. Patented 18th August, 1846.

To John Dutton, of Aston, Pa., for improvement in the Manufacture of Ice. Patented 18th August, 1846.

To Smiley H. Sample, of Fayette, Mo., for improvement in Hemp Breakers. Patented 18th August, 1846.

To Edward G. Fitch, of New-Orleans, La., for improvement in Life Preservers. Patented 18th August, 1846

To Thomas W. Harvey, of New-York city, for improvement in Machinery for Dressing Screw Heads. Patented 18th August, 1846.

To William Clayton, of Marshalton, Pa., for improvement in Brakes for Carriages. Patented 18th August, 1846.

To Peter Armand le Comte de Fontaine Moreau, of London, England, for improvement in Barometers. Patented 20th August, 1846.

To John Needham, of New-York city, for improvement in Sofa Bedsteads. Patented 20th August, 1846.

To Thomas J. Sloan, of New-York city, for improvement in Wood Screws. Patented 20th August, 1846.

To George Tiemann, of New-York city, for improvement in Scarificators. Patented 20th August, 1846.

RE-ISSUES.

To Jordan L. Mott, of New-York city, for improvement in Stoves. Original Letters Patent dated 30th Dec., 1833; Re-issued 8th August, 1846.

To Herbert H. Stimpson, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Cooking Ranges. Original Letters Patent dated 17th May, 1844; Re-issued 8th August, 1846.

DESIGNS.

To Lathrop L. Bacon, of Le Roy, N. Y., for designs for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To Samuel D. Vose, of Albany, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To Samuel D. Vose, of Albany, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To William Jackson, of Syracuse, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To William Jackson, of Syracuse, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To Alonzo L. Blanchard, of Albany, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To Samuel D. Vose, of Albany, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To John Bt. Clute, of Schenectady, N. Y., for design for Vases. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To Adam Hampton, of New-York city, for design for Fireplace Grate. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To George W. & Henry Sizer, of Springfield, Mass., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To George W. & Henry Sizer, of Springfield, Mass., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To George M. Norton, of Rochester, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To Ezra Ripley, of Troy, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To Ezra Ripley, of Troy, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To William P. Cresson, David Stuart and Jacob Beesley, of Philadelphia, Pa., for design for Stoves (assigned to W. P. Cresson.) Patented 25th July, 1846.

To James D. Sparkman, of Williamsburgh, and Melville Kelsey, Brooklyn, N. Y., for design for Carpets and other fabrics. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To James D. Sparkman, of Williamsburgh, and Melville Kelsey, Brooklyn, N. Y., for design for Carpets and other fabrics. Patented 25th July, 1846.

To Jordan L. Mott, of New-York city, for design in Bathing Tubs. Patented 18th August, 1846.

To Samuel D. Vose, of Albany, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 18th August, 1846.

To Calvin Fulton, of Rochester, N.Y., for design for Cooking Stoves. Patented 18th August, 1846.

To Samuel D. Vose, of Albany, N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 18th August, 1846.

To Samuel D. Vose, of Albany N. Y., for design for Stoves. Patented 18th August, 1846.

To D. F. Goodhue & Charles Guild, of Cincinnati, Ohio, for design for Stoves. Patented 18th August, 1846.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

A Practical Treatise on Dyeing and Calico Printing; including the latest Inventions and Improvements; also, a description of the Origin, Manufacture, Uses and Chemical Properties of the Various Animal, Vegetable and Mineral Substances employed in those arts; with an appendix, comprising Definitions of Chemical Terms; also, with Tables of Weights and Measures, Thermometers, Hydrometers, &c. By an Experienced DYER, assisted by several scientific gentlemen. With Engravings on steel and wood. New-York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-street. 1846.

Dyeing is a science as well as an art. A man of science may understand its theory, but would fail in its practice; while a practical man must be often unsuccessful from not understanding the philosophical principles upon which the art depends.

We hail, therefore, the appearance of this valuable work, uniting the science and the art in a manner so clear and explicit, as to make it a perfect manual for the dye-house.

Such a treatise, with practical formulæ, has long been needed. Little or nothing has been done for the art of dyeing since Bertholet and Bancroft's time, and even these writers were greatly deficient.

There has therefore been a great want felt for a real solid, substantial work, embracing the science and the art, so as to show how closely they are combined—and how much success in the latter is dependent upon a correct knowledge of the former.

Here we have exactly such a book. Here is science without parade, and art without prejudice. All colours and colouring materials are here classified and arranged in a natural manner—every hue, tint and shade is traced to its source, and shown up in every relation it bears to the primary elements of light, darkness and colour—and in the same clear manner, we have set forth, the actual properties, characters and uses, of every animal, mineral, and vegetable substance employed in imparting colour to the various fabrics used by man. For although this treatise is mainly intended to be used by the dyer and calico printer, so full and complete is it in every thing relating to colour, the substances which impart it, and the manner of using them, that every person in any way concerned with the buying and selling, or preparing or using any material essential to the art of dyeing any substance, will find much to instruct him.

It is almost needless to add, that there are full descriptions of Mordaunt's acids and alkalies, and their uses, with every variety of formulæ; but it *should be stated* that it is accompanied throughout the text with explanatory wood cuts, and that there are also ten copper-plate engravings, elucidating all the most modern improvements in dye-houses, dyeing implements, &c. &c., with drawings of all the latest inventions of machinery used in calico printing, bleaching, &c. &c.

We are thus particular, because we feel assured we are doing a great favor to our readers whom such a treatise may in anywise concern, in showing that we understand the subject on which we write. and that we are actuated by motives connected with their advantage, in recommending to them a book which will cost them but little, when compared with the immense fund of knowledge they will derive from it.

We should much like to give some extracts from the work, which want of space will not permit; but this surely cannot be necessary, as no one interested can afford to be without this invaluable treatise.

A Text Book on Chemistry, for the use of Schools and Colleges. By John William Draper, M. D., Professor of Chemistry in the University of New-York, Member of the American Philosophical Society, &c., with nearly three hundred illustrations. HARPER & BROTHERS, publishers, 82 Cliff-street, New-York. 1846.

This manual of Chemistry, as it may be called, consists of the lectures of Dr. Draper to his chemical class in the New-York University. It treats of a science with which we are familiar, begins at the beginning, and carries the student along, from the constitution of matter through its various modifications, with great perspicuity, which derives much aid from its numerous well defined illustrations. It is easy to see that the author not only well understands his science, with all its most modern improvements, but that he has acquired great tact in the manner of imparting it to others. It is quite a treat to get hold of such a text book, and we cannot doubt it will prove of great advantage to the colleges and schools for whose use it is intended.

The History of Civilization, from the Fall of the Roman Empire to the French Revolution. By F. Guizot, the Prime Minister of France, Author of the "History of the English Revolution of 1840." Translated by William Hazlitt. Volume 2nd. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway; Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut-street. 1846.

Guizot is acknowledged to be the most enlightened and successful of philosophic historians. His two great works, "A General History of Civilization," and the one before us, are deservedly regarded as the richest contributions ever made to the philosophy of universal history.

They comprise a succession of lectures, most of which were delivered [illegible] the Sorbonne, during the winters of 1828, 1829 and 1830. Even now, after fifteen years, literary France still looks back with pride and exultation to these memorable winters, when the eloquent teachings of Guizot, of Villemain, and of Cousin, filled the venerable Halls of the Sorbonne with a brilliant assemblage of eager and unwearied listeners. The masterly production, we now notice, is but little known in this country, or, indeed, in England. We remember to have read it some years since in the original, and then regretted that so vast a treasure of thought and research should not have found a competent translator of it into our own language. This Mr. Hazlitt has now well accomplished, and we recommend it as the product of a mind, distinguished above all others, for wonderful power of generalization, for conciseness, and, as the German would say, for "many-sidedness." He penetrates with an eagle eye into the bewildering perplexity and obscurity of the dark ages, and to his steady gaze, chaos and confusion appear shaped into the unerring order of Providence, in social and spiritual progression.

The Jerusalem Delivered, of Torquato Tasso. Translated into English Spenserian Verse, with a Life of the Author. By J. H. Wiffen. First American from the last English Edition, illustrated with six fine Steel Engravings. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway; Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chestnut-street. 1846.

A splendid edition is this, of the far famed production of the unfortunate poet, whose life, and some of his fugitive sonnets, are prefixed. There is, also, a list of such of the English nobility and gentry as went on the Crusades, from the reign of William Rufus to that of Henry III., and a number in uncertain reigns.

The text is clear and beautiful, the engravings in fine style, and the whole book highly creditable to all concerned in getting it up. Those who were gratified with Messrs. Appleton's edition of "Dante"—and these must surely be all who saw it—will find the Jerusalem Delivered equal to it in every respect.

United States Tariff, or Rates of Duties payable on Imports, according to an act of Congress, passed July 30, 1846. Alphabetically arranged by Edwin Williams, compiler of the New-York Annual Register. New-York: Van Norden & King, 45 Wall-street. Boston: Saxon & Kelt, 133 Washington-street. 1846.

This alphabetical arrangement of the New Tariff may be relied upon for its accuracy. Mr. Williams is familiar with the subject, having often, heretofore, arranged previous Tariffs in the most perfect manner.

An Elementary Reader, German and English, based upon the affinity of the languages. To accompany "Ollendorf's Method." By Ignace Steiner, C. Acad. Cæs. Reg. Carolo Ferdinandeo Universitatis Pragensis. New-York: Wiley & Putnam, 163 Broadway. 1846.

We have before given a favorable opinion of Ollendorf's method of teaching languages, and on an examination of this book, are fully satisfied of its merits. They consist in selecting analogous words in the two languages, German and English; for when a word is found etymologically, and in sense connected with one already familiar, an association is at once established between them, by which the memory is greatly aided. There are in the English language some fifteen thousand words which have their radical representatives in German, and thus there certainly does exist a great analogy between the words of the two languages, which, when they are brought together, greatly aids the learner. We can therefore conscientiously recommend Mr. Steiner's Elementary Reader to all students of the German language, as calculated greatly to facilitate their studies. The words with a common radical are ingeniously brought together, and the reading of German thus acquires an aid which could be given to it in no other way, to so much advantage.

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COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION OF FRANCE.

WE have on several occasions, in our commercial sketches, shown that each commercial nation regulates its import and export duties—in fine, its customs revenue, with a single eye to its own position, and the circumstances which govern its internal trade and resources; but we have not shown this forth in all its force and strength.

We purpose now to do so, that it may be made fully manifest, not only that no such thing as free trade exists between different nations, but that the United States, where the people theoretically govern, is the only country in the known world where the principle of protection to the home industry is officially disavowed.

We intend going through all the countries of Europe, and shall commence with the trade between England and France. We think it will be admitted, that if free trade could exist between two separate nations, with mutual advantage, England and France offer the best chance of its success, from their proximity; and hence, from the lightness of the charges of transportation.

The following account of the Commercial Legislation of France, is taken from Macgregor's Statistical Work, and as some of our readers may not know who Macgregor is, we state for their information, that he was for years, and for aught we know, now is, Secretary to the English Board of Trade—of course, a thorough Free Trade man. Thus, his statements may be fully relied upon, as he would be the first to proclaim anything bordering on the freedom of commercial intercourse between the two neighboring nations, did it exist. Of course, we do not endorse any of the free trade notions of Mr. Macgregor. Our readers will perceive the same arguments are used by him with regard to France and her restrictive system, that are used towards all other nations who protect their own industry, and are not willing to admit British goods at low duties.

That our readers may have the subject more fully before them, we make a few extracts from English legislation, when the useful arts were new to her. These extracts we deem of the greatest importance, because they show in the clearest manner, that until England had become most fully proficient in manufactures, and could supply them at cheaper rates than her neighbors, she adopted the most stringent measures for the exclusion of the manufactures of all other nations, and stimulated her own industry in these branches, not only by such prohibitions and high duties, but gave bounties and every species of encouragement that the government could devise—as we shall most fully prove.

In 1337, in the reign of Edward III. it was enacted, "That no English wool should be exported; that all cloth-workers should be received from any foreign parts, and fit places assigned them, with direct privileges, and a certain allowance was made them from the king." By another act it was ordered, "That none should wear any cloth for the future, but such as was made in England, except the king, queen, and their children." And by a third act, "That none should wear foreign furs or silks, unless he was worth one hundred pounds per annum; nor was any foreign cloth to be imported, on pain of forfeiture and other punishment."

In 1721, an Act of Parliament was passed, prohibiting the wear of Indian calicoes in Great Britain; and for the encouragement of the wear of buttons, or button-holes of silk and mohair, it was enacted, "That no buttons, or button-holes should be made of any other materials."

In 1745, a law was passed, enacting, "That it shall not be lawful for any person in Great Britain to wear any cambric or French lawn, under the penalty of four pounds, and the like penalty on the seller."

In 1759, an act was passed, preventing any British subjects shipping any French woollen goods, within the limits of the Turkey or Levant Company. Nor could *any* cloths be imported within those limits, except accompanied by a sworn certificate, that they were of the manufacture of Great Britain.

About this time political economy began to attract public notice, and various books were written upon the subject. Sir Joshua Child was very famous, and was a full and complete advocate for protection, prohibition and bounties, which were then in high vogue with the British government. On their effects with regard to France, Child says: "With respect to our having lost a great part of our exportations to France, we need only to observe, that we have done all that was in our power, for retaliating their great imposts on our draperies, by laying high duties on their wines, brandies, &c., and by our legislation, rejecting the French Bill of Commerce, in the year 1713."

In remarking on this bill, or rejecting the article of that treaty, Anderson says, "that its ratification would, instead of its consumption at home of our silk manufactures, have introduced an inundation of French silks, ribbons, embroideries, &c., so that our Spitalfields and Canterbury looms would have stood still, and our most profitable trade in woollen goods, &c. with Portugal, would have been utterly lost."

We have seen a book written by "Gee," a celebrated English politico-economical writer, bearing date in the year 1730, entitled, "The Trade and Navigation of Great Britain Considered." Showing that the surest way for a nation to increase in riches, is to prevent the importation of such foreign commodities as may be raised at home. That this kingdom (England) is capable of raising within itself, and its colonies, materials for employing all our poor in those manufactures which we now import from such of our neighbors as refuse the admission of our own." The author of this book states, that his book was written by order of the Lords of Trade. This was the uniform doctrine of the government of Great Britain, and she acted up to it for nearly two centuries; indeed, it is only within a very few years, that she has relaxed her exclusive system in any way. Not until her skill is so complete, her capital so large, and her wages so low, that with these combined, she has such advantages, as render all importations of manufactures of any kind utterly impossible. And even *now*, with all these advantages, she still continues her navigation laws in all their rigor, and admits the productions of her colonies at a much less duty, than similar articles from foreign countries.

With these few remarks we submit the following from Macgregor's Statistics, and invite particular attention to it, as a powerful commentary upon free trade, promising our readers that we shall follow up the subject, and show the same state of things throughout the Commercial World. The only country on earth that has fallen into the snare set by England, is the United States of *free* America.

COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION OF FRANCE.

[From McGregor's Statistics.]

The commercial system of France was, like all other existing regulations, broken in upon during the first Revolution.

After the restoration, France, in her legislation and practice, adopted, in its broadest acceptation, " the system of exclusion."

The cultivable soil of France is capable of yielding, at much less expense of culture, more than twice the quantity of produce, and in greater variety, than the lands fit for agriculture in the United Kingdom : while the population amounts to only one third more, and while the great majority of the whole are occupied in husbandry; consequently, France, whatever may be the restrictions and prohibitions of her tariff, can maintain the life of individuals at comparatively little cost, and afford labor at a cheaper price than England. France, therefore, being capable of raising all the green and white crops common to both countries, in somewhat greater perfection than England, besides the vine, maize, olive, and mulberry in abundance, is far superior to the latter in the quality and amount of the productions of her soil.

The harbors of France, on the other hand, are generally shallow at their entrance, and far inferior to those of England, with the exception of Toulon, Marseilles, and one or two small ports in the Mediterranean, and the ports of Brest, Bordeaux, L'Orient, and Rochefort.

The ports of France, in the Channel and Atlantic, are also rendered comparatively far less commanding than British ports, from the former lying to leeward of the direction from whence the prevailing winds blow.

France has abundance of coal, iron, and some other minerals, but inconveniently disposed for general cheap use and transport. Hence, the principal elements of power to diminish labor are inferior to those of England. Coal and iron being generally found in France at a considerable distance from each other, and not interstratified as in England, where the coal, without the expense of transport, smelts the iron; and where the iron, in its turn, is converted into machinery to diminish the difficulty and labor of working the coal mines.

With the brief view we have given of the natural advantages of England and France, we will now show how anti-commercially both those kingdoms have legislated; how, with the most abundant materials of great international trade, and reciprocally great advantages of commercial alliance, a war of *material injuries* has been maintained, during an unprecedentedly long cessation of armed hostility.

M. St. Ferréol, in a work dedicated to M. Greterin, director-in-chief of the administration of customs, professes to elucidate the principles of the French customs, from 1791 to 1834, and sums up with the following conclusions; which may be considered as those generally which have hitherto been entertained by the French chambers, as principles of commercial legislation in France, viz:

1st. To reduce the existing duties solely upon materials, (*matières premières*) required from manufactures.

2d. To protect the importation of machines, and tools for manufactures.

3d. To treat cotton twists and linen yarns as manufactured goods, and not as articles necessary for manufactures.

4th. To abolish no prohibition—to reduce no duty on manufactures, on any other consideration than to lessen the profits of frauds.

5th. To prohibit the exportation of machinery, tools, teazles, and all that may contribute to the developement of foreign industry.

6th. To protect our merchant shipping in an efficient manner, by particularly favoring the importation of merchandize by our own vessels from the ports of first shipping.

7th. *To consider as a principle that in all treaties to be negotiated with England, most of the conditions which she will propose, are those which we ought to avoid.*

M. St. Ferréol, in giving a sketch of Napoleon's Continental System, observes, "It is a principle admitted among all maritime powers, that the flag protects the merchandise which the ship carries. This principle was disregarded sometimes by England during the reign of Louis XIV.; but England had, in due time, returned to an acknowledgment of the laws of nations, in consecrating the principle that the flag protected the ship's cargo.

"The law of the 10th Brumaire, year 5, disavowed this principle, the violation of which has always excited the reprobation of civil governments. The second article of the law decreed, that all vessels loaded in full, or in part, with goods reputed English, should not enter a French port under pain of instant seizure." It was under this law that so many American vessels were seized and condemned, and for which France had lately to pay twenty millions. Even neutral vessels, driven into French ports by distress, were subjected to seizure and condemnation, if they exceeded one hundred tons; and no American vessel under that size could have found it profitable to cross the Atlantic. "These vigorous measures," continues M. St. Ferréol, "drove a great number of ships from our ports—trade in general suffered, and England, seeing that we no longer respected the cargoes borne under neutral flags, made reprisals, seizing and capturing French products wherever found. It was not the English government, therefore, who, during the war which ended in 1814, first violated the principle in question. It was ours. For, on going back to the source, we are forced to acknowledge, that in the law of the 10th Brumaire, is found the first disposition to disregard the inviolability of neutrals; and that this law was the first cause which led us to the system of Continental blockade. The numerous victories of the Emperor in the north of Europe, permitting him to dictate laws, he would forcibly shut all the ports of our continent against English commerce. England answered this provocation, by declaring in a state of blockade all the ports of Europe, from Cape Finisterre to Elba. It was in reprisal of this last measure that Napoleon published the Berlin and Milan decrees."

England, to paralyze the effects of these decrees, interdicted (by the Orders in Council of the 10th November, 1807) all direct commerce between neutral nations and France, subjecting them to land their cargoes in England for re-exportation to the continent, and also to the assumption of England to search all vessels. Under no other circumstanstances, could neutral ships trade with France. In 1809, England allowed the vessels of Turkey and Hamburg to enter the ports of France, Italy, and Illyria, on paying a duty of 20 per cent.

"The Emperor," says M. St. Ferréol, "on being informed of these measures, resolved, at whatever cost, to extinguish the commerce of England, and to take from her the means of supporting a war, sustained chiefly by the subsidies she paid her allies. To attain this end, the most energetic measures were decreed. The log-books and journals of vessels, arriving from foreign countries, were compulsorily demanded—the crews examined before communicating with the ports, and tribunals of customs, and prevotal courts instituted—charged specially to judge, condemn, and burn on the spot, prohibited merchandize, the produce of English manufactures, wherever found, either in France, or in countries occupied by our armies."

These violent measures were considered so injurious to the trade and manufactures of the United States, that the government of that nation retaliated by an act passed on the 1st of March, 1809, declaring all American ports shut against French vessels, and prohibiting the importation into the United States of all merchandize of French origin, under pain of confiscation, and a penalty of three times the value; interdicting, at the same time, the ships of the United States trading with France.

"The Emperor," continues M. St. Ferréol, "did much more. He did not confine himself to seizing and destroying cargoes, he attacked the governments. An order of the 10th of July, 1809, prohibited the importation into Holland of any article by American vessels. An imperial decree of the 23d March, 1810, ordered the seizure of all vessels and cargoes sailing under the American flag. An order of the 9th of April following, directed the seizure of all Ottoman and Barbaresque vessels, with their cargoes, entering our ports. On the 15th of May, 1810, all Swedish vessels arriving with colonial produce, were ordered to be seized, and with their cargoes condemned. Each measure was followed by another, all combining one object on the part of the imperial government—that of extinguishing, at whatever price, and by every means, the commerce of England.

"In defiance of all these difficulties, which, like the heads of the Hydra, were constantly multiplying, to exclude foreign ships from our ports, many braved all hazards, as the scarcity of exotic products in our markets had so greatly raised prices, that each would approach our ports to risk the realization of great profits, or the alternative of utter ruin. A Dutch Captain declared, that if profit were to be made by a voyage to hell, he would sail thither, although his sails should be burnt.

"A multitude of means were resorted to in evasion of the Continental System. Smuggling, by corrupting official *employés*, and otherwise; supplying Russia by the White Sea; and the means of supplying the continent generally with British manufactures and colonial produce, were found out by multitudes of English, Americans, Dutch, Hamburgers, Danes, Swedes, and even the French themselves."

One of the many evil consequences of high prices was, the adulteration and counterfeiting of commodities. "The retailers and sub-retailers," says M. St. Ferréol, "sophisticated colonial produce, and drugs, coffee, and spices, were made of counterfeit materials. Sugars were mixed with heterogeneous matter, and most substances reduced to powders or liquids were falsified. I have seen nutmegs, into which were introduced native quicksilver to augment their weight, &c., &c. Such was the state of our trade towards the end of the imperial government.

"The system of Continental blockade was impracticable, and therefore absurd. Impracticable, because France, instead of having at sea a navy to enforce a blockade of the British isles, had her own squadrons blockaded in her own ports;—impracticable, from our not being able to close the continent of Europe against English commerce;—impracticable if we could do so, because we were not in a condition to supply the Continental States with the products which they wanted. This system at length allied against us the North of Europe, which the gold of England had often armed. Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Prussia and the Hanseatic Towns, had the right to say to us,—*Furnish us with the articles we require, or suffer us to purchase them from the only power who can supply us.* But not only were we not in a condition to furnish Europe with products from beyond the sea, but we were in equal want of them ourselves. We were consequently obliged to create the system of *licenses*, which left open the trading to Continental ports to English vessels, and enabled us to import the articles which we required from beyond the sea. So that we who had proclaimed England in a state of blockade, became indirectly her tributary. Nothing could be imported or exported but according to her good pleasure."

What a picture of the absurdity and the pernicious effects of attempting to restrict trade, do these extracts from the works of M. St. Ferréol exhibit!

We will now proceed to show the changes that have actually been made up to this time in the French customs tariff.

The first general tariff of duties was that of 1664, under Colbert. The basis of this tariff were:

1. To reduce the duties of exportation on the products and manufactures of the kingdom.
2. To diminish the duties of importation on all articles required for manufactures.
3. To exclude, by raising the duties, foreign manufactures.

These principles were not strictly enforced. The exportation of corn, brandy, wine, silk stockings, caps and stockings of wool, new boots, camlets, &c. was greatly restricted by high duties. While most foreign manufactures were so much sought after in France, that St. Ferréol asserts the duties on importation were not raised above 5 per cent. until 1667, when the duties were greatly augmented on hosiery, cloths of all kinds, tin, glass, prepared skins, carpets, &c. besides the duties exacted at the interior customs.

The first prohibition of foreign commodities bears date the 8th of October, 1686, three years after the death of Colbert. They excluded all woven cloths from India, China, and the Levant.

"The fatal treaty," says M. St. Ferréol, "signed with England on the 26th September, 1786, abolished the prohibitions which applied to the products of this kingdom and her colonies. In consequence of some reductions of the duties on our wines, vinegars, olive oil and beer, we had the imprudence to authorize the admission of a great number of manufactured articles, on paying a duty of from 10 to 15 per cent. Hosiery, woven cloths, and woollens, articles of dress, porcelain, earthenware, pottery, and glass, were, in virtue of this treaty, admitted among us, subject only to a duty of twelve per cent. It is true, that the treaty established a reciprocity of duties; but this reciprocity vanished before the superiority already obtained by the manufacturers of that kingdom."

The second general tariff was that of 1791, which abolished the interior customs (except the still existing *octrois.*) The bases of this tariff were—

1. To exclude, by absolute prohibitions, certain foreign productions and manufactures.
2. To change the prohibition of certain articles into the permission of entry, by paying a duty not exceeding twenty shillings.

These bases were drawn up by the then first clerk of the customs of Lyons, and adopted in March, 1791, as follows:—

1. Total exemption from entrance duties on alimentary articles, and, on materials required for manufactures.
2. Progressive duties on certain merchandises.
3. Highest duties not to exceed 25 per cent. on objects of luxury or fantasy.
4. Absolute prohibition of manufactures which compete with ours.
5. Finally, ten per cent. duty on all spices.

This tariff however contained but few prohibitions of importation. Gold and silver worked on thread, twisted linen and hemp threads, tobacco, glass, and a few other articles, being those excluded.

The decree of March, 1793, annulled all treaties of alliance and commerce with all powers with whom France was at war.

The decree of September, 1793, excluded foreign vessels from the coasting trade of France; another decree, of the same month and year, prohibited the exportation of all articles of primary necessity. The laws of the 10th Brumaire and 17th Pluviose, year 5, required only the Milan and Berlin decrees to attempt the (*impossible*) exclusion of British trade from the continent.

The decrees of 1813 imposed enormous duties; among others.

On Cotton Wool,.....................	60 to 800 francs,	per 100	kilogrammes.
Tea,..............................	150 to 900	do	do
Indigo,...........................	900	do	do
Cocoa,............................	1000	do	do
Cochineal, Cinnamon, &c.,.........	2000	do	do

The tariff of the restoration, in 1816, was based on the following principles:

1. To establish double the rates of duties, ordained by the decrees of 1810, on a great number of articles in them stated, and the application of the same to other articles not stated in the decree of the 8th of February, 1810.
2. Reductions of duty on objects too heavily taxed in the decrees of the 5th of August, and the 12th of September, 1810.
3. Augmentation of duties on articles too lightly taxed by the Tariff of 1791, and by subsequent decrees.
4. Establishing a uniform duty on divers articles of the same origin or destination, arranged under generic denominations, such as gums, resins, most medicinal vegetables, &c.
5. Establishing a *sur-tax*, varying according to the place, or the lading of the ship or flag.
6. Maintaining the basis which, in 1791, served to adjudge the value of certain objects.
7. New fixation of duties on objects omitted in the tariff.
8. Maintaining all the prohibitions established by the laws of the 1st of March, 1793, and the 10th Brumaire, year 5, independently of others to be established.
9. Adopting the laws of the tariff of 1791.

Since the establishment of the tariff in 1816, several modifications have been made; but by the statements which follow, it will appear that the principles of free trade have scarcely, if at all, entered into the considerations of change.

Colbert, who is considered the founder of the restrictive system, never contemplated, as far as we can learn, one-hundredth part of the restrictions by which the existing customs tariff of France limits the commercial relations of that kingdom with other countries.

The prohibitions abolished, duties substituted, and the duties diminished or augmented in the tariff of 1816 up to the present time, are as follows:—

No. I.

Prohibitions removed on articles required for manufactures.

ARTICLES.	Date of prohibition abolished	Duty substituted.
Chromates of lead	July 5, 1836.	75 francs per 100 kils.
" potass	do	150 do
" iron	do	75 do
Extract of quinine	July 2, 1836.	1 franc per 1 kil.
Iron in bars, called rails	do	Same duty as other rolled iron, according to dimension.
" in angular forms	do	Same duty as iron of similar dimension.
" old and broken	July 5, 1836.	Same duty as cast iron, when permitted by order of the Minister of Commerce.
Cotton yarns, No. 143, and upwards; others prohibited	July 2, 1836.	7 to 8 francs per 1 kil., about 3s. per lb.
Thread of sheep's wool, twisted, not dyed	July 5, 1836.	7 francs per 1 kil.
Prepared skins, large, tanned	do	7 to 8 francs per 100 kils.
" " calf, called Russia " " for book-binding	July 2, 1836.	5 francs each.
Praiss, or tobacco-juice	do	1 franc per 100 kils.

No. II.

Prohibitions removed on manufactured articles.

ARTICLES.	Date of prohibition abolished	Duty substituted.
Applications on tulle, worked in thread lace...	July 5, 1836.	5 per cent.
Buttons, gilded, plated, of shell, ivory, mother-of-pearl, iron, steel, or of silk, mixed with cotton.......	do	100 to 200 francs per 100 kils.
Chain-cables for the use of the marine..........................	July 2, 1836.	200 francs per 100 kils-
Cashmere shawls........................	do	80 to 150 francs each.
Copper wire twisted with silk, gilt..	do	950 francs per 100 kils.
" " silvered..	do	600 do
" or brass wire, simply drawn	do	100 to 200 do
Cotton lace..........................	do	5 per cent.
Clock-work, mounted...............	do	1 franc 10 cents, to 6 francs each
Tin dishes..........................	July 5, 1836.	75 francs per 100 kils.
Rum, arrack, or tafia................	July 2, 1836.	200 francs per 100 litres.
India handkerchiefs (Foulard's) raw.	do	6 francs per 1 kil.
" " printed..	do	12 francs do.
Clothing or other stuffs for the actual use of travellers.............	do	30 per cent.

No. III.

Duties diminished on articles required for arts, manufactures, or preparations.

ARTICLES.	Scale of Duty.	Date of change.	Former duty.		Present duty,	
	Kilogr'ms		Frs.	Cents.	Frs.	Cents.
Coals by sea according to the zone.						
" by French vessels.........	100	2 July, 1836	1	50	30, 60, and 100c	
" by land..................	do	Ord. 25 Nov. 1837	60 c. to 30 c.		50 to 15	do
Wood, mahogany, in logs, from countries out of Europe.	do	2 July, 1836	30	50	From India 10f not Europ'n 15f	
" from the Entrepôts.........	do	do	37	50	18	50
" Ebony from countries out of Europe.............	do	do	27	0	4	0
" from Entrepôts	do	do			5	0
" Cedar, do..................	do	do	5	0	2	50
" not particularly enumerated, from India.........	do	do	20	0	10	0
" from countries out of Europe	do	do	27	0	15	0
" from Entrepôts............	do	do	30	0	18	50
Dye woods, from countries out of Europe................	do	do	7	0	5	0
" from Entrepôts............	do	do	10	0	8	0
" not particularly enumerated, from countries out of Europe................	do	do	2	0	1	50
" from Entrepôts............	do	do	4	0	3	0
" ground, or Pernambuco.....	do	do	30	0	20	0
Cacao (beans) from places out of Europe................	do	do	100	0	55	0
" from Entrepôts.....	do	do	140	0	95	0
Caoutchouc from countries out of Europe............ ..	do	do	90	0	10	0
" from Entrepôts.......	do	do	100	0	15	0
White lead......................	do	5 July, 1836	30	0	20	0
Cobalt..........................	do	2 July, do	5	0	0	50

ARTICLES.	Scale of Duty	Date of change.	Former duty.		Present duty.	
	Kilogr'ms		Frs.	Cents.	Frs.	Cents.
Cochenille	1	Ord. 25. July, 1837	1	50	to 75c. & 1f.	
Copper (mineral of)	100	2 July, 1836	1	0	0	10
" cast (one fusion only) in bars or plates, &c. either pure or mixed with zinc	do	do	40 or	44	to 1, 2, & 3 frs.	
" do mixed with tin (one fusion)	do	do	10 or	11	do	
Elephants' teeth from India	do	2 July, 1836	80	0	35	0
" from other countries out of Europe	do	do	100	0	From Factories in Africa, 40f	
" from Entrepôts	100	2 July 1836	140		55	
Tin (mineral of)	do	Ord. 23 July, 1838	1	0	0	10
" raw, only from India	do	2 July, 1836	2	0	0	50
" do elsewhere	do	do	6	0	2	0
Iron (mineral of)	do	do	1	0	0	10
" cast, in pigs, imported by sea or by land, from the sea to Blanc Misseron	do	do	9	0	7	0
" drawn into bars of all dimensions	do	do	Various duties		Reduced 1-4th*	
Oil seeds (various duties)	do	do	Maxim. 38, 50 Minim. 5.		Maxim. 15 Minm. 2.50	
Oils, (comestible) as olive	do	do	40	0	25	
" palm	do	do	25	0	12, 50 to 14 fs.	
" cocoa	do	do	25	0	do	
Indigo, from India	do	do	1	50	0	50
" countries out of Europe	do	do	1	75	2	0
Wool, raw or washed	do	do	10 to	60	20 ad valorem	
Lac dye from India	do	do	80	0	1	40
Flax, not hackled, and tow	do	do	10	0	5	0
" hackled and combed	do	do	30	0	15	0
Machines (locomotive) for railroads	do	17 May, 1837	30 per. cent.		15	0
Nickel (metallic)	do	5 July, 1830	100	0	5	0
Bristles	do	2 July, 1836	20	0	5	0
Lead (mineral of)	do	do	5 and 10 f.		3	50
Silk, raw	1	do	1	90	0	5
" reeled	do	do	2	4	0	10
Tallow, raw	100	do	15	0	10	0
Sulphur, mineral of	do	do	2	0	0	25
Zinc, first fusion only, in pigs, " bars, or plates	do	do	5	10	0	10

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* But still enormously high, and many kinds prohibited.

The other articles on which diminutions have been made, are acids, aniseeds (grains,) antimony, avelandes, bamboos, balsams, asphaltum, naphtha, cashew-nuts, carthame, glue (raw,) copal, curcuma, emery, eider-down, perfumed oils, tortoise-shells, barks, roots, gums and beans for medicines, dyeing, or tanning, mother-of-pearl, gall-nuts, saffron, copperas (raw,) and horse-hair. The duties on all these have been variously reduced to an average of about one-half of the former tariffs, and generally to lower rates than those of the British customs, when necessarily required for arts and manufactures. They can only be, like all other articles, imported direct from foreign countries in French vessels, or in vessels belonging to the countries of which they are the produce. Goods by vessels of such country paying, however, like all foreign vessels, a differential duty of generally from ten to one hundred per cent. higher than by French vessels.

No. IV.

Reduction of duties on articles not altogether required in manufactures, and on manufactured articles.

ARTICLES.	Scale of duty.	Date of change.	Former duty.		Present duty,	
	kilograms.		Frs.	Cents.	Frs.	Cents.
Cinnamon from India..............	1	2dJuly 1836.	2	0	1	0
" other parts out of Europe	do	do	6	0	2	0
Cloves from India................	do	do	2	80	1	0
" other parts out of Europe	do	do	3	50	1	80
Nutmegs from India..............	do	do	4	0	1	50
" other parts out of Europe	do	do	12	0	2	50
Pimento from India......	100	do	60	0	45	0
" other parts out of Europe	do	do	120	0	90	0
Pepper from India................	do	do	95	0	80	0
" other parts out of Europe	do	do	105	0	80	0
Tea...........................	1	do	2	50	1	50
Linens woven of flax or hemp, duty on which was enormously raised by the Ordinance of 17th May, 1826, and reduced from the later by Ordinance of 2nd July, 1836.....................	100	5 July 1836	Minimum of 1826, 30frs. rising according to fineness up to maximum of 700 francs.		Minimum of 1836, 36 frs. Maximum 200 francs.	
Table linen, unbleached..........	do	do	250	0	150	0
" do damasked.......	do	do	400	0	150	0
" bleached and damasked	do	do	500	0	300	0
Sealing wax....................	do	do	200	0	100	0

The duties on linen yarns were equally reduced by the Ordinance of the 5th of July, 1836, to rates equal to an *ad valorem* duty of from six to eight, ten and twelve per cent.; but these have lately been raised in compliance with the outcry on the part of some spinners, principally in the north of France. The duty on a few other articles has been slightly reduced.

No. V.

Duties increased on the following articles :

ARTICLES.	Scale of duty.	Date of change.	Former duty.	Present duty.
	kilograms.		frs.	frs.
Steel cast in bars..................	100	May17 1826	100	120
" *en tôle*, or wire.............	do	do	100 & 70	240
Spermaceti, produce of foreign fisheries, raw, pressed, or refined	do	do	all kinds, 60	raw 40 pressed 60 refined 100
" candles.................	do	do	85	220
Copper, pure or mixed...........	do	July 5, 1836	80	90
Hops...........................	17	May17 1826	45	60
Wool, washed and dyed..........	do	do	73 & 44	500

ARTICLES.	Scale of duty.	Date of change.	Former duty.	Present duty.
	kilograms.		frs.	frs.
Horses and mares	each	May 17 1826	15	50
Foals	do	do	5	15
Sheep, ewes, lambs, and rams	do	do	75 c. 1 f. & 5 f.	5
Quills for writing	100	do	120 frs.	240
Butchers' meat, fresh	do	do	8	18
" salt pork	do	do	23	33
" other	do	do	20	30
Vitrefactions (*en masses*) or tubes	1	do	75 cts.	3
Vegetables, dry or ground	100	do	5 frs.	10
Marble, unwrought	do	do	3	2f. 50c. 5 & 10f.
Tea from other parts than India	1	do	3	5
Lead pencils, in cedar	100	do	20	100
" in white wood	do	do	15	25
Cordage and fishing nets of hemp	do	do	15	25
Linen yarns	do	1841	various duties	various duties.
Mercery	do	do	90	37 fr. 50 cts.
Sugars, viz. — in French vessels from Bourbon, raw, not white	do	do	26 fr. 50 cts.	38 50
" ditto, raw, white	do	do	33 10	46 0
" ditto, clayed of all kinds	do	do	49 frs.	60 0
" French West Indies, raw, not white	do	do	33 fr. 60 cts.	45 0
" ditto, raw, white	do	do	39	52 50
" ditto, clayed of all kinds	do	do	58	66 50
" foreign sugar, in French vessels, from India, raw, not white	do	do	55	60 frs.
" ditto, white and clayed	do	do	55	80
" ditto, from other countries out of Europe, raw, not white	do	do	60	65
" ditto, ditto, white and clayed	do	do	70	85
" ditto, from entrepôts in Europe, raw, not white	do	do	70	75
" ditto, ditto, white and clayed	do	do	80	95

Having thus statistically shown the changes which have been made in the French Customs Tariff, we will now briefly view its actual prohibitions and duties, as bearing on the exclusion or admission of foreign manufactures and products. We have already shown, that as far as foreign articles of first necessity for home manufactures, arts and sciences are required, they are generally admitted at low duties. Some pay no duty at all, while some again are still taxed enormously high. Nearly all chemical products may be considered as prohibited. *Manufactured goods*, with the exception of silks, machines and tools, and a few articles of first manipulation, required in aid of French manufactures, are nearly all *prohibited.*

I.

Cotton manufactures are all prohibited, except the following :—

Denomination of Merchandise.	French Weights, No. or ad valorem.	Import duty in French Money by French ships.	English Weights, Number, or ad valorem.	Imp't duty in English Money by French ships.
		frs. cts.	lb. oz. dr. gr.	£ s. d.
Nankeens from India	1 kil. N. G.	5 0	2 3 4 7	0 4 0
Do. from other parts	do	prohibited	do	prohibited
Cotton lace	value	5 per cent.	value	5 per cent.
Do. thread, raw, of No. 143 and above, simple	1 kil. N. G.	7 0	2 3 4 7	0 5 7.2
Do. twisted	do.	8 0	do	0 6 4.8
All other cotton thread without distinction of numbers or quality	100 kil. G.	prohibited	220 7 5 8	prohibited
Coverlets, very common, from 8 threads to 5 millemetres		45, or about 150 pr. ct.		

II.

Woollen Manufactures as Woven Cloths, dyed or undyed, dressed or undressed, Hosiery (Bonnetterie) of all kinds, Flannels, Yarns, &c., are all prohibited, except the following:—

Denomination of Merchandise.	French Weights, Number, or ad valorem.	Import duty in French Money by French ships.	English Weights, Number, or ad valorem.	Imp't duty in English Money by French ships.
		frs. cts.	lb. oz. dr. gr.	£ s. d.
Blankets and Bed-Covers..........	100 kil. N. G.	200 0	220 7 5 8	8 0 0
Carpets in knots of wool and linen thread..........................	do	250 0	do	10 0 0
Do. of woollen yarn, tufted or in round points, the under side of which presents canvass or thread	do	300 0	do	12 0 0
Do. woollen........................	......	500 0	do	20 0 0
Worsted wares and buttons to be used in France with other materials...........................	do	190 to 20	do	

All other Carpets, Coverlets, Shawls, &c. &c., prohibited.

III.

Manufactures of Iron, Hardwares of all kinds, are prohibited, except the following:

Steam-engines, *ad valorem*..................................		30 per cent.
Machinery, mechanical instruments for the use of manufactories and Locomotive engines for Railways......................		15 per cent.
	Per Kil.	Francs.
Tools, Copper Boilers, &c., for ditto, and Agricultural Implements..	100	50 to 200
Ship Anchors under 250 kilogrammes.....................	100	15
Do. above 250 do..........................	100	40
Spurs and Pins..	100	100 to 200
Coffee Mills..	100	100
Wire, common or fine.......................................	100	60 to 950

And a few other articles of minor importance, for which see the general Tariff hereafter.

From the foregoing condensed statement of the prohibitory system of France, as affecting three great staple branches of British manufactures, it will appear that nothing of consequence is admitted, but under the presumption of aiding French manufactures.

BOUNTIES TO MEN AND SHIPS EMPLOYED IN THE FRENCH FISHERIES.

High bounties have, previously to the war, and since the peace of 1814, been paid to those owning ships, and to men employed in the French fisheries.

In pursuance of an ordinance, dated the 25th of June, 1841, the following bounties were granted for the encouragement of the French fisheries. They come into operation on the 1st of March, 1842, and are to remain in force until the 31st of December, 1850.

COD FISHERY.

Premiums for chartering and equipping vessels, &c.

	frs.	cts.
Article I. For every man engaged in the fisheries, having drying or curing grounds, whether on the coasts of Newfoundland, Saint Pierre, or Miquelon, or upon the great Newfoundland Bank	50	0
For every man engaged in the fisheries, not having drying or curing grounds in the Icelandic Seas	50	0
For every man engaged in the fisheries, not having drying or curing grounds on the Great Newfoundland Bank	30	0
For every man engaged in the fisheries on the Dogger Bank	15	0

Bounties on the produce of the fisheries.

	frs.	cts.
1st. On the importation into the French colonies, whether in America or on the other side of the Cape of Good Hope, of every quintal of dried cod-fish, the produce of the French fisheries on the coasts of Newfoundland, Saint Pierre, or Miquelon, or which may be taken from *entrepôts* in France	22	0
2nd. On the importation into the above colonies, every quintal of dried cod-fish, the produce of the French fisheries, if the fish shall be exported from French ports without having been there warehoused	16	0
3d. On every quintal of dried codfish, the produce of the French fisheries, whether forwarded dried from those fisheries or from French ports, and imported into foreign possessions in the West Indian Seas, or on the American coasts of the Atlantic Ocean, or into those ports in which a French Consul is resident, whether in Spain or Portugal, or into foreign possessions on the Mediterranean, or into Algiers	14	0
4th. On every quintal of dried codfish the produce of the French fisheries, forwarded direct either from those fisheries, or from French ports, and imported into Italian ports	12	0
5th. On every quintal of dried codfish the produce of the French fisheries, imported by land carriage into Spain	10	0
6th. For every quintal of cod sounds that the fishing vessels may bring into France, the produce of their fishery	20	0

Art. II.—Vessels departing for the fisheries with drying grounds, whether on the coasts of Newfoundland, Saint Pierre, Miquelon, or the Great Bank of Newfoundland, shall have a crew whose minimum is to be fixed by a royal ordinance.

Art. III.—The provisions of this law, as well as those of the laws of the 22d April, 1832, and the 9th of July, 1836, which may not contain any thing to the contrary, shall cease to be in force from and after the 1st day of January, 1851.

WHALE FISHERIES.

Art. I.—The bounties granted, in pursuance of the laws of the 22nd April, 1832, and of the 9th of July, 1836, for the encouragement of the whale fisheries, shall be fixed as follows, to date from the 1st of March, 1842, viz:

Bounties on the departure of vessels:—

	frs.	cts.
For every ton of shipping, outward bound, with crews composed entirely of French sailors,	40	0
And for vessels with crews composed partly of French and foreign sailors, agreeably to the provisions of the 4th article of the aforementioned law of the 22d of April, 1832,	29	0

Bounties on the return of vessels:—

	frs.	cts.
On each ton of shipping where the crew is composed entirely of French sailors,	27	0
On each ton of shipping with a mixed crew,	14	50

According to the conditions of the second article, of the law of the

22d of April, 1832, if the vessels shall have fished either beyond Cape Horn, or to the east of the Cape of Good Hope, in the latitudes prescribed by the said article II., and by article III., of the same law.

Art. II.—In addition to the above, there shall be allowed to vessels especially manned for the Sperm Whale, (*cachalot*) fishery, in the Pacific Ocean, after they have been at sea for the space of, at least, *thirty months*, and during which time they may have reached as far as 28° of north latitude, an *additional bounty* upon the *sperm oil*, &c., which they shall bring home.

This bounty shall be fixed in the following manner, viz:

	fr.	cts.
For all vessels that have quitted since the day on which the law came into force, and until the 31st of December, 1845,......................	20	0
For all vessels that may depart upon, and after, the 1st of January, 1846, to the period of the expiration of this law,......................	15	0

Art. III.—The special conditions to be complied with by the shipowners, whose vessels shall be engaged in this whale (*cachalot*) fishery, shall be determined by a royal ordinance.

Art. IV.—The provisions of this present law, as well as those of the laws of the 22d April, 1832, and of the 9th of July, 1836, which may not contain anything to the contrary, shall remain in force until the 31st of December, 1850.

Done at the Palace of the Tuilleries, the 25th June, 1841.

Trade of the United Kingdom with France; 1814 *to* 1844.

Years.	Exports to France.				Imports from France.	
	Declared value of British and Irish produce and manufact'rs.	Official Value.			Official Value.	Am't of Import Duties (Customs & Excise.)
		Brit. & Irish produce and manufact'rs.	Foreign and Colonial merchandize.	Total.		
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1814..	582,703	377.799	1,870,337	2,248,136	740,227	913,128
1815..	298,292	214,824	1,228,856	1,443,690	754,372	1,182,843
1816..	407,700	321,070	1,312,152	1,634,222	417,783	992.367
1817..	1,003,486	596,753	1,054,262	1,651,015	527,866	1,017.354
1818..	369,504	318,851	877.912	1,196,763	1,162,424	1,145,845
1819..	299,493	248,078	734,780	982,858	642,012	1,335,953
1820..	390,745	334,087	829,814	1,163,901	775,132	1,412,548
1821..	438,266	382,404	1,037,101	1,419,505	865,617	1,501.430
1822..	437,009	346,811	839,150	1,185,961	878,273	1.610,329
1823..	349,636	241.837	743,575	985,412	1,115,800	1,723.627
1824..	338,635	260.498	864,501	1,124,999	1,556,734	1,838.411
1825..	360,710	279,212	892,403	1,171,615	1,835,985	1,967,499
1826..	488,438	426,820	656,124	1,082,944	1,247,426	2,037,165
1827..	446,951	416,726	133,504	550,230	2,625,748	2,058,831
1828..	498,938	448,945	195,498	644.443	3,178,825	2,176,233
1829..	491,388	509,921	337,897	847,818	2,036,994	1,963,257
1830..	475,884	486,284	181,065	667,349	2,317.686	1,963,400
1831..	602,688	636,097	256,082	892,179	3,056,155	1,936,698
1832..	674,791	847,487	621,822	1,469,309	2.452,894	2,271,249
1833..	848,333	997,321	314,317	1,311,638	2,577,215	2,015,540
1834..	1,116,885	1,280,667	546,923	1,827,590	2,808,256	2,056,551
1835..	1,453,636	1,561,915	505,346	2.067,261	2,746,999	1,956.689
1836..	1,591,381	1,700,665	644,950	2,345,615	3,125,978	1,973,492
1837..	1,643,204	2,036,844	839,207	2,876,051	2,707,587	1,900,648
1838..	2,314,141	3,193,923	691,080	3,885,003	3,431,118	1,988,267
1839..	2,298,307	3,118,410	514,243	3,632,653	4,022,790	1,986,056
1840..	2,378,149	3,543,665	627,038	4,170,703	3,775,754	1,913,037
1841..	2,902,002	4,709,588	806,200	5,515,788	3,654,428	1,969,135
1842..	3,193,939	5.506,842	683,872	6 190,714	4,160,509	2,059.634
1843..	2,534,898	4,305,616	765,187	5,070,803	3,387,741	1,741,660
1844..	2,656,259	3,375,228	828,948	5,204.176	3,687,878	1,679,799

The Chief Premiums on the Exportation of Woven and Spun Goods, and Hardwares, are as follows, viz:

Woollen manufactures, ...	per 100 kilogrammes.
do of pure wool, scale of premium according to value,	67 to 300 francs.
Cotton manufactures, including twist, ...	25 do
Hardwares, premium, equal to import duty on metals, although manufactured from French minerals.	

Now, as far as the importation of foreign manufactures are in question, and the giving premiums for the exportation of French manufactures, we find little of important amelioration in the present commercial legislation of France that differs from the old commercial laws, or from the spirit of the Milan or Berlin decrees.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES OF FRANCE.

The metrical system, based upon the metre as a point of unity, was introduced by the National Assembly in 1791. The distance between the equator and the pole was divided into ten millions of equal parts, and one of these parts is the length of the metre. By simple decimal multiplication or division, all other measures are determined. Messrs. Delambre and Mechain ascertained, by measuring an arc of the meridian between the parallels of Dunkirk and Barcelona, that the distance from the equator to the pole was equal to 5,130,740 French toises. This distance, divided by ten millions, is the metre = 36.941,328 French inches, = 37.308 English inches. The metre being the measure of length, the arc, or 100 square metres was adopted for the measurement of surfaces, and the litre as the measure of capacity or cubic measure: the litre being the cube of one-tenth of a metre. The *gramme* was adopted for weight, and made equal to the actual weight carefully ascertained of the 100th part of a cubic metre at the freezing point. This system is beautifully and arithmetically simple in all its proportions and calculations.

As multiplying terms, the word	Deca prefixed, =	10 times.
	Hecto =	100 times.
	Kilo =	1000 times.
	Myria =	10,000 times.
As dividors	Deci denotes the	10th part.
	Centi	100th part.
	Milli	1000th part.

The following proportions, to elucidate the comparison between English and French weights and measures, are taken from *L'Annuaire du Bureau des Longitudes:*

WEIGHTS.

ENGLISH TROY.	FRENCH.	AVOIRDUPOIS.	FRENCH.
Grain is equal to .	0.06477 of a gramme.	Dram equals . . .	1.7712 gramme.
Pennyweight is equal to	1.55456 of a gramme.	Ounce	28.3384 grammes.
Ounce is equal to .	31.0913 grammes.	Pound imperial . .	0.4534148 of a kilo.
Pound troy, imperial, equal to . .	0.3730956 of a kilo.	Hundred-weight .	50.78246 kilo.
		Ton	1015.649 kilo.

FRENCH.	ENGLISH.
Gramme, equals	15.438 grains troy. 0.643 of a pennyweight. 0.03216 of an ounce troy.
Kilogramme	2.68027 pounds troy. 2.20548 pounds avoirdupois.

LONG MEASURE.

ENGLISH.	FRENCH.	FRENCH.	ENGLISH.
Inch, equals . . .	2.539954 centimètres.	Millimètre, eq'ls	0.03937 of an inch.
Foot	3.0479449 décimètres.	Centimètre . . .	0.393708 of an inch.
Yard	0.91438348 of a mètre.	Décimètre . . .	3.937079 inches.
Pole or perch . .	5.02911 mètres	Mètre	39.37079 inches. 3.2808992 feet. 1.093633 yard
Furlong	201.16437 mètres.		
Mile	1609.3149 mètres.		
		Myriamètre . . .	6.2138 miles.

LIQUID AND DRY MEASURES.

ENGLISH.	FRENCH.	FRENCH.	ENGLISH.
Pint, equals . . .	0.567932 of a litre.	Litre, equals . .	1.760773 pint. 0.2200967 of a gallon.
Quart	1.135864 litre.		
Gallon imperial .	4.54345794 litres.	Décalitre	2.2009667 gallons.
Peck	9.0869159 litres.	Hectolitre	22.009667 gallons.
Bushel	36.347664 litres.		
Sack	1.09043 hectolitre.		
Quarter	2.907813 hectolitres.		
Chaldron	13.08516 hectolitres.		

LAND MEASURE.

ENGLISH.	FRENCH.	FRENCH.	ENGLISH.
Sq. yards, equals	0.836097 of a mètre carré.	Mètre carré, eq'ls	1.196033 square yard.
Sq. rod or perch	25.291939 mètres carrés.	Acre	0.098845 of a rood.
Rood	10.116775 acres.	Hectare	2.47361 acres.
Acre	0.404671 of an hectare.		

MR. SECRETARY WALKER'S REVENUE PRINCIPLES.

"That no duty be imposed on any article, above the lowest rate, which will yield the largest amount of revenue."

"That below such rate, discrimination may be made, descending in the scale of duties; or, for imperative reasons, the article may be placed in the list of those free from all duty."

Although we have on more than one occasion stated our views of the iniquity of the principle here laid down, we have not given it that thorough examination and exposition—that perfect showing up, in all its deformity, which it so richly merits.

To those not familiar with mercantile concerns, its bearing may not be fully seen—it is therefore our purpose, as we have said, to show it up in its naked wickedness.

Senator Haywood, in his address, commenced at page 370 and continued to page 384 of our last number, has so fully shown, by extracts from the messages of Presidents Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe and Jackson, that the power to discriminate in favor of the home labor and industry is engrafted in the Constitution, and has been acted upon, ever since its adoption, that we deem it unnecessary to repeat what he has so fully set forth. We shall therefore content ourselves at this time in referring our readers to his triumphant refutation, of what we consider the impudent assumption of Mr. Secretary Walker, as expressed in his Report at the last session of Congress, that—"A Tariff is a bill to lay and collect taxes. It is a bill for 'raising revenue,' and whenever it departs from that object, in whole or in part, either by total or partial prohibition, it violates the purposes of the granted power."

We say we shall content ourselves with Mr. Haywood's triumphant refutation of it, so far as the illustrious names referred to are concerned. But in addition to these proofs of the power, we may be permitted to state, that it has been recognised by every other President, and every other Secretary of the Treasury, except those now in power, since the adoption of the Constitution; and has been moreover recognised and acted upon by every Congress which has been held under that instrument, whenever the subject has been before them. There had been THIRTY Tariffs enacted, commencing with July 4th, 1789, and ending with August 30th, 1842, and in every one of them this power has been recognised; so that at thirty sessions of Congress the opinions of all the Presidents of the United States, up to that period, have been confirmed by the solemn acts of the people's representatives, and never till Secretary Walker assumed the *dictatorship* has this power been peremptorily denied. It has, it is true, been sometimes questioned; but on one memorable occasion, when an attempt was about to be made by South Carolina to nullify it, President Jackson ordered out the military to enforce it, and, as is well known, would have used this strong national arm to command obedience to the laws, had an attempt been made to resist them.

Thus we consider the arrogant assumptions of Mr. Secretary Walker as most completely and fully refuted—not merely by opinions, but by solemn acts, which no man may disobey without laying himself liable to punishment.

Having, therefore, disarmed Mr. Walker of the false premises upon which he has attempted to found the Tariff of 1846, we proceed now to show how completely he not only denies a power established by the Constitution, but how he assumes a substantive power, at war with its whole spirit and tenor.

This is no other than a power to destroy the industry of the whole Union—to interfere with the rights of the citizen secured to him by the Constitution, namely the power to use every lawful means for the promotion of his interests, in any trade or calling which he may select.

The assumption of Mr. Walker is, in his own words, "That no duty be imposed on any article above the lowest rate which will yield the largest amount of revenue." So that if any article is not imported, no matter at what imposed duty, in the largest quantities, then the duty is to be further reduced, to a rate that will yield more revenue.

In the Senate document, No. 437, a Report of the present Secretary to that body, a table is given of the increase of importation anticipated upon certain articles to be imported under the new Tariff. To illustrate our views of the monstrous principle of Secretary Walker, we shall select the article of iron in bars, blooms, hoops, pigs, rods, slabs, or other form not otherwise provided for. On these articles the increase of importations under the Tariff of 1846, is estimated to be $1,185,000. The total estimated amount of importations, at $4,756,704.

The assumption that there will be such an increase, is founded upon the reduction of the duty from its present specific charge to 30 per cent. *ad valorem.* Now, suppose no such increase shall take place. Suppose the demand in Europe for these articles shall be so great that they cannot be imported paying the duty of 30 per cent.; if the principle assumed be carried out, the duty must be further reduced in order to cause their import. Then suppose it to be so reduced, and that next year iron should fall in price in England, as it has frequently done, some twenty-five or fifty per cent. in value, will not all those concerned in its manufacture in the United States be ruined? Nay, even at the present rate of thirty per cent., whenever iron shall be made in greatly increased quantities abroad, or the fictitious demand created for it by the rail road mania shall cease, it will inevitably fall greatly, and ruin must follow to all concerned in its manufacture in this country.

We have taken the article of iron as one best adapted to show the iniquity of the principle, and the entire destruction to all our home interests which it involves—rendered doubly certain by the adoption of *ad valorem* duties.

But the effect will be the same on any other article which shall experience a material decline in price. Those at all acquainted with the import trade, know that every article is liable to such fluctuations. The other markets of the world to which British goods of every kind are sent, are often glutted with them; when a great fall takes place, the inevitable consequence of which is, that a great similar decline is sure to follow on the articles, of a like nature, imported into this country.

Practice, then, upon Secretary Walker's principle, even upon the present Tariff of 1846, is sure to bring ruin upon all who are concerned in manufactures of any nature and kind whatsoever, and so it will be as long as *ad valorem* duties shall continue the basis upon which our tariff is founded.

In no form in which duties can be assessed, is there so much injustice as in that of *ad valorem* rates. An importer never knows what he may realize for his goods. Independently of the many frauds, which experience has proved no laws can prevent, the foreigner can always send his goods here to undersell the American purchaser. Foreign manufacturers will have generally goods on hand at the end of the year, which it is their interest to sell at a sacrifice; and they can always send goods to their agents here, which they will gladly dispose of at the price paid by the American merchant in Europe. These goods they can honestly invoice at lower prices, and obtain their admission under less duties.

The system of *ad valorem* duties is thus seen to be, under any circumstances, favorable to the foreigner, and adverse to the American merchant; but should the vicious principle laid down by Mr. Walker be once admitted to be the governing principle of the American tariff, farewell to all American manufacturers and mechanics.

So much for Mr. Secretary Walker and his Revenue standard, so far as individuals are concerned. Will it operate any better for the country? Let us see.

By his Recapitulation Table, in the same document, No. 437, he estimates his increased importations under the Tariff of 1846, to amount to $120,011,910. and the duties at $30,050,492.

Now, although no man living can tell what the importations under the new system will be; for the sake of showing the effect to be produced upon the country, take his own estimate. The value consumed and on hand in 1845, as stated in his Recapitulation Table is—$106,080,410, which, deducted from $120,011,910, leaves an increase of importation beyond last year of $13,931,500. Now, our domestic exports of last year were, according to the Report of Commerce and Navigation, ending 30th June, 1845, $99,299,776, which, deducted from the anticipated imports as before stated, $120,011,910, leaves a surplus of $20,712,134.

The Secretary has not told us in what articles the increase of exports is to take place to enable us to pay for the increase of imports. Let us then examine the subject, and see where it is to come from. These exports, in 1845, consisted of the following items:

Fisheries,	$4,507,124
Forests,	6,550,421
Cotton, Rice and Tobacco,	61,369,918
Agricultural Productions,	14,039,942
Manufactures,	12,832,371
	$99,299,776

Now, how is the above $20,712,134, or nearly twenty-one per cent. surplus in our exportations to be distributed?

We venture the assertion, that in lieu of any such increase, there will be a diminution of our exports. The industry of the whole country is already paralyzed by the mere passage of the tariff three months before it can go into operation; and therefore we may well look for diminished exports of domestic produce. In what, then, are we to pay for the surplus importation of near twenty-one millions of dollars?

The plain and only answer is, that what we do pay for, beyond our exports, must be in specie.

We forbear to prophecy what will be the condition of things after the Tariff of 1846 shall have been in operation one year. Time will determine this. We, however, unhesitatingly assert, that there will be no better effect produced by it in a national, than in an individual point of view; and we do not envy Mr. Secretary Walker the fame he will acquire, by the arrogant assumption he has made, in attempting to engraft a new and unrighteous restriction to the powers of Congress, by confining the tariff to the mere purposes of revenue.

That our readers may see the proposed increase, and the articles which are expected to come into the country in greater quantities, under the Tariff of 1846, we condense them from the Table in document 437, to which we have above referred, in the following table:

Amount of Importations consumed and on hand, year ending June 30th, 1845. So far as they are expected to increase or decrease, according to table B, in Document 437 of the Senate, being a report from Mr. Secretary Walker.

Such articles as are not expected to increase or diminish under the New Tariff, are omitted, our object being only to show the estimated increase or decrease.

ARTICLES.	Value of Imported articles consumed and on hand, year ending June 30, 1845.	Estimated decrease of such importations.	Estimated increase of such importations.	Total estimated amount of such importations.
125 Per Cent.				
Brandy and other spirits			$300,000	$1,365,375
40 Per Cent.				
Fruits—Almonds, currants, dates, figs, prunes, rasins			80,000	1,114,045
Spices—Cassia, cloves, mace, nutmegs, pimento			15,000	349,469
Cordials of all kinds	29,788	....	100,000	129,788
Cut Glass	24,256	....	150,000	174,256
30 Per Cent.				
Articles worn by men, women, or children—of whatever material composed, made-up, or made wholly, or in part, by hand	1,988,054	....	75,000	2,063,054
Caps, hats, muffs and tippets of fur, or all other manufactures of fur, or of which fur shall be a component material	16,413	....	2,000	18,413
Caps, gloves, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, and all similar articles made on frames, worn by men, women or children, and not otherwise provided for	741,525	....	1,000	742,525
Carpets, carpetings, hearth rugs, bedsides and other portions of carpeting, being either ambusson, Brussels, ingrain, Saxony, Turkey, Venetian, Wilton or any other similar fabric	463,030	....	150,000	613,030
Cheese	7,183	....	2,000	9,183
Clothing ready made, and wearing apparel of every description, of whatever material composed, made up, or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor, seamstress or manufacturer	61,581	....	150,000	211,581
Coal—coke and culm of coal	188,526	....	125,000	313,526
Ground ginger	705	....	3,000	3,705
Hats and bonnets for men, women and children, composed of straw, satin straw, chip, grass, palm leaf, or any other vegetable substance, or of hair, whalebone or other material not otherwise provided for	732,371	....	75,000	807,371

ARTICLES.	Value of Imported articles consumed and on hand, year ending June 30, 1845.	Estimated decrease of such Importations.	Estimated increase of such Importations.	Total estimated amount of such Importations.
Hemp, unmanufactured	140,372	....	35,000	175,372
Iron in bars, blooms, bolts, loops, pigs, rods, slabs, or other form, not otherwise provided for	3.571,704	....	1,185,000	4,756,704
Castings of Iron	85,670	....	30,000	115.670
Vessels of cast Iron	52,153	....	10,000	62,153
Manufactures—articles, vessels, and wares not otherwise provided for, of brass, copper, gold, iron, lead, pewter, platina silver, tin or other metal, or of which either of these metals or any other metal shall be the component material of chief value	4,391,035	....	259,000	4,650,035
Manufactures—articles, wares and vessels of glass, or of which glass shall be the component material, not otherwise provided for	517,763	....	75,000	592,763
Glass tumblers, plain, moulded or pressed, not cut or printed	790	....	100,000	100,790
Manufactures and articles of leather, or of which leather shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for	844,411	....	25,000	869,411
Manufactures and articles of marble, marble paving tiles, and all other marble more advanced in manufacture than in slabs, blocks, or in the rough	4,333	500	....	3,833
Manufactures of wool, or of which wool shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for	6,143,523	....	1,100,000	7,243,523
Molasses	3,072,021	....	250,000	3,322,021
Muskets, rifles and other fire arms	141,612	....	2,000	143,612
Ochres and ochrey earth used in the composition of painter's colors, whether dry or ground in oil	21,980	....	60,000	81,980
Oil cloth of every description, of whatever material composed	32,626	....	50,000	82,626
Olive oil in casks, other than salad oil	44,692	....	20,000	64,692
Paper—antiquarian, demy, drawing, elephant, foolscap, imperial, letter, and all other paper not otherwise provided for	44,488	....	25,000	69,488
Playing cards	141	....	1,000	1,141
Potatoes	58,443	....	150,000	208,443
Sewing silks in the gum or purified, silk twist, and twist composed of silk and mohair	430.364	....	300,000	730,364
Sugar of all kinds	4,049,708	....	350.000	4,399,708
Sirup of sugar	3	....	30,000	30,003

Wines—Burgundy, Champagne, Claret, Madeira, Port, Sherry, and all otherwise, and imitations of wine	1,414,967	....	500,000	1,914,967
☞ Articles embraced in the above schedule, and the importations of which are enumerated generally in those paying the following duties.				
5 per cent. ad valorem	36,072	10,000	....	26,072
20 per cent. ad valorem	186,160	150,000	....	36,160
25 per cent. ad valorem	739,948	250,000	....	489,948
25 Per Cent.				
Buttons and button moulds of all kinds	107,716	....	30,000	137,716
Baizes, bockings, flannels, and floor cloths of whatever material composed, not otherwise provided for	172,640	....	60,000	232,640
Cables and cordages, tarred and untarred	19,404	....	120,000	139,404
Jute, sisal, grass, coir, and other vegetable substances unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for	343,450	....	40,000	383,450
Manufactures composed wholly of cotton, not otherwise provided for	11,386,933	....	4,350,000	15,736,933
Manufactures of goat's hair or mohair, or of which goat's or mohair shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for	341,678	30,000	....	311,678
Manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for	8,058,269	....	800,000	8,858,269
Manufactures of worsted, or of which worsted shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for	3,335,093	....	500,000	3,835,093
Woollen and worsted yarn	182,927	....	120,000	302,927
Wool, unmanufactured	1,667,641	....	200,000	1,867,641
20 Per Cent.				
Acids—acetic, acetous, benzoic, boracic, chromic, citric, muriatic, white and yellow nitric, pyroligneous and tartaric, and all other acids, of every description, used for chemical or medicinal purposes, or for manufacturing or in the fine arts, not otherwise provided for	15,304	5,000	....	10,304
Angora, Thibet, and other goat's hair, or mohair unmanufactured	16,425	5,000	....	11,425
Blankets of all kinds	994,562	100,000	....	1,094,562
Fish, foreign, whether smoked, salted, dried or pickled, not otherwise provided for	289,844	80,000	....	369,844
Gunny cloth	7,572	....	100,000	107,572
Hempseed or linseed oil, and rapeseed oil, and all other oils used in painting	86,080	....	100,000	186,080
Leather, upper, of all kinds	50,916	....	50,000	100,916
Lead, sugar of, (section 3.)	259	....	10,000	10,259
Linens of all kinds	4,159,311	....	1,000,000	5,159,311
Litharge	98	....	250	348
Manufactures of flax, not otherwise provided for	603,666	....	100,000	703,666
Manufactures of hemp, not otherwise provided for	806,959	....	250,000	1,056,959

ARTICLES.	Value of imported articles consumed and on hand, year ending June 30, 1845.	Estimated decrease of such Importations.	Estimated increase of such Importations.	Total estimated amount of such Importations.
Opium	18,716	....	25,000	43,716
Paper hangings and papers for screens or fire boards	46,285	....	100,000	146,285
Putty	34	....	250	284
Quills	9,387	....	1,000	10,387
Salt	883,359	....	800,000	1,683,359
Skins tanned and dressed, of all kinds	75,113	....	50,000	125,113
Steel, all, not otherwise provided for	36,668	....	10,000	46,668
Sulphate of barites, crude or refined	10,020	....	20,000	30,020
Velvet in the piece, composed wholly of cotton	649,620	....	300,000	949,620
White and red lead	13,859	....	100,000	113,859
Whiting and Paris white	305	....	500	805
Window glass, broad crown, or cylinder	25,566	....	125,000	150,566
Wood unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for	83,253	10,000	....	73,253
☞ Articles embraced in the above schedule, and the importations of which are enumerated generally in those paying the following duty:				
Free	346,750	100,000	....	246,750
15 per cent. ad valorem	243,452	30,000	....	213,452
25 per cent. ad valorem	20,594	....	30,000	50,594
30 per cent. ad valorem	235,839	....	30,000	265,839
15 Per Cent.				
Brimstone in bulk	100,625	10,000	....	90,625
Terne tin plates, tin foil, tin in plates or sheets, tin plates galvanised, not otherwise provided for	1,682,812	75,000	....	1,607,812
Zinc, spelter, or tentenegue in sheets	73,598	30,000	....	43,598
☞ Articles embraced in the above schedule, and the importations of which are enumerated generally in those paying the following duty:				
Free	493,608	100,000	....	393,608
10 Per Cent.				
Bleaching powders, or chloride of lime	72,885	....	10,000	82,885
Burr stones, unwrought	32,624	15,000	....	17,624
Diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies and other precious stones, and imitations thereof, when not set	32,351	18,000	....	14,351
Furs, hatters, dressed or undressed, not on the skin	465,739	....	50,000	515,739

Furs, undressed, when on the skin	225,705	25,000	....	200,705
Hair of all kinds, uncleaned and unmanufactured	154,898	150,000	....	4,898
Maps and charts	30,127	10,000	....	20,127
Watch materials of all kinds, not otherwise provided for	29,685	17,000	....	12,685
Woad or pastel	3,194	....	5,000	8,194
☞ Articles embraced in the above schedule, and the importations of which are enumerated generally in those paying the following rates of duty.				
Free	256,056	100,000	....	156,056
5 per cent. ad valorem	700,000	105,000	....	595,000
5 Per Cent.				
Brass, in pigs or bars	12,037	1,000	....	12,702
Brass, when old, and only fit to be remanufactured	1,665			
Bristles	171,947	100,000	....	71,947
Clay, unwrought	14,670	5,000	....	9,670
Copper, in pigs or bars	1,088,955	174,000	....	995,722
Copper, when old, and only fit to be remanufactured	80,767			
☞ Articles embraced in the above schedule, and the importations of which are enumerated generally in those paying the following rates of duty:				
Free	498,704	75,000	....	422,704

RECAPITULATION.

RATES OF DUTY.	Value Imported articles consumed and on hand, year ending June 30, 1845.	Revenue on such Imports.	Estimated amount of such Importations.	Revenue on such Imports.
Schedule paying 125 per cent. ad valorem	$1,065,375	$1,331,719	$1,365,375	$1,706,719
do. 40 do. do	2,683,607	1,073,443	3,028,607	1,211,443
do. 30 do. do	35,838,127	10,751,438	40,567,627	12.170,388
do. 25 do. do	26,878,665	6,719,666	33,068,665	8,267,166
do. 20 do. do	22,895,995	4,579,199	26,127,995	5,225,599
do. 15 do. do	3,442,129	516,318	3,227,129	484,068
do. 10 do. do	9,031,724	903,172	8,656,724	865,672
do. 5 do. do	2,743,741	137,187	2,388,741	119,437
admitted free, exclusive of specie	1,501,047	....	1,581,047	....
Total	106,080,410	26,012,142	120,011,910	30,050,492

Let our readers examine this table, and they will there see, as we have already stated, that the Secretary's plan is to keep up the Revenue by the increased importation of $13,851,500. Upon what principle these increased imports are to be consumed in the country, we are wholly at a loss to conceive. No one can doubt that under the stimulus of the home industry, caused by the Tariff of 1842, the country was in a condition to consume a greater amount of foreign productions than it will be under the destructive Tariff of 1846; and that, therefore, instead of $13,851,500 increase, in our importations, the $106,080,410, consumed and on hand at the end of 1845, is much more than will find consumers in 1846: for be it remembered, the increased importations must paralyze the home industry, and reduce the amount of wealth produced in the country, and in so much lessen the power to consume.

Let us be fairly understood. We do not say, that the increased importation *may* not at first take place; but we do mean to insist upon the certainty that it cannot be consumed. Should it be imported, it will moreover have to be paid for, and that by the exportation of specie, to the derangement of the currency and the distress of the whole Union.

We write this article, and make these statements, to caution those concerned, and to invite a more than common investigation into the *enormity* of the principle—that the government of the United States has no power over the commerce of the country, except for the purposes of securing a revenue at the lowest possible duties; a doctrine which, if carried out, will leave the people of the United States wholly at the mercy of foreign governments.

Suppose, for a moment, that foreign governments should lay export duties upon their manufactures, as they have often done—in that case, such duties would be a direct tax upon the consumers in the United States, to which, upon Mr. Walker's theory, they must submit, without redress.

We do not apprehend that any such export duty will be laid, but it is perfectly fair to suppose such a case, to show, that it never could have been the intention of the framers of our institutions to have thus left us wholly at the mercy of foreign governments.

We observe, by last accounts from England, that the price of iron has advanced, and that an advance was anticipated on other merchandizes, in consequence of the expected demand for this country under the new tariff, and doubtless such advance will more or less occur; but probably to no very great extent, until our manufactures shall be greatly reduced in amount, as they must be, under the Tariff of 1846—then when the English shall get possession of our market, prices will undoubtedly be higher than they would be, were home competition, under a proper protection, left to take its course, and as it always has done, supply, at moderate prices, the demand of the country from our own industry.

In conclusion, we would sound the tocsin of alarm throughout the land, against this monstrous principle of Secretary Walker, on which we comment, and against which, we trust, the Agricultural and Manufacturing States will rise in their might, as they would against a proposition to convert us again into British Colonies.

COTTON AND OTHER TEXTILE MANUFACTURES OF SWITZERLAND,

WITH THE PRICE OF LABOR AND CONDITION OF THE SWISS LABORER.*

We had prepared an account of the manufactures of Switzerland, and the condition of the laboring classes in that country, for publication in this number, when we had our attention called to an article in Hunt's Merchant's Magazine, for September, on the same subject, purporting to be " a translation from the Report of the Commissioners of the Swiss Confederation on Exports and Commerce with Foreign Countries."

In this article we find the following assertion:—" *The developement of the Swiss Cotton manufacture, may be adduced as a bright example of the perfect success of free competition, of the energy of the Swiss people, and of the industrious habits of the nation.*

So McCulloch, in his Geographical, Statistical and Historical Dictionary says, " Switzerland is a country in which the great principles of free labor at home, and free intercourse with foreigners, have been fully carried into practice. No restrictions exist upon the pursuit of any branch of trade. 'Industry has been left to itself.' Wealth has not been diverted by legislative interference from its own natural tendencies. There has been no foolish struggle encouraged by the government between the protected monopoly of the few and the unprotected interests of the many. Two millions of men have made, under every disadvantage, the experiment of Free Trade as a system. The consumer has been allowed to go to the cheapest market, the producer to the dearest."

So, then! here we have full testimony that Switzerland is the model of " Free Trade."

We are glad to have this evidence, because it enables us to show to the American people, in the fullest manner, what is recommended to them. We hope they will examine into this promised blessing of " Free Trade," and that they may do it the more effectually, we present to them a full account of the textile manufactures of Switzerland, showing, in the clearest manner, the full effects of their " Free Trade." SIXTY-FIVE CENTS PER WEEK WAGES!!! But we will not anticipate—let our readers ponder well the whole statement of Swiss manufactures, and then let them say whether or no they wish to see Free Trade manufacturers in this country, by reducing the wages of labor to sixty-five cents per week.

That our readers may more fully comprehend the whole matter, we think it best to state the geographical and topographical situation of Switzerland.

Switzerland is, in the first place, an inland and mountainous country, lying between Germany, Italy, and France, principally between the 46th and 48th degrees of north latitude; its greatest length is 210 miles, greatest breadth, 140 miles, containing in area, 15,233 square miles; population in 1837, 2,188,000. The principal rivers are the Rhine, on the north, emptying into the German Ocean, and the Rhone, on the south, emptying into the Mediterranean. What external commerce they have, has to be transported, at great expense, across other countries—of course they cannot levy any duties upon the raw materials which they import, such as cotton, &c., &c.;—since such duty would operate to the entire destruction of their manufactures, about which, Mr. McCulloch, in his book before quoted, says:

" *The Swiss, from their situation in the centre of Europe, are obliged to pay an enhanced price for their cotton and yarn; so that their whole advantage consists in their being able to reduce wages next to nothing, without being driven from the business. We believe, however, that this resource will not be found to afford them adequate protection; and that they will be compelled, from the competition of the power-looms, of this, and other more favorably situated countries, to relinquish all but the finer and more difficult sort of weaving.*"

Thus says the great Free Trade advocate, McCulloch, at page 865, of the second volume of the book before quoted, " McCulloch's Geographical Dictionary."

It is ever thus with these Free Trade theorists. Examine into their doctrine, and you will be sure to find some fact which overthrows it all, at one fell swoop. Thus, Switzerland, held up as the only model of Free Trade in all Europe, and lauded to the skies for this policy, is, according to the very man who thus lauds it, obliged to sustain its manufactures *by reducing wages next to nothing;* and in the same paragraph, we are told, " even this will not be found to afford them adequate protection."

Is it possible? Can it be possible, that the intelligent American citizen will suffer himself to be duped, when such facts as this imaginary state of trade always developes—when the light of truth is made to shine upon it, are to be found admitted by the very men who are its strongest advocates?

But, we must conclude our remarks, and ask the attention of the reader to the following very particular account of the textile manufactures of Switzerland, and prices paid the laborer in that sample country of " Free Trade."

The following was the number of spindles (almost all mules) in the Cotton Factories of Switzerland in May, 1836, when a census was taken:—

Canton de	Zurich,	292,916
do	St. Gall,	78,570
do	Glarus,	40,100
do	Schwyz,	5,760
do	Thurgovie,	26,400
do	Argovie,	123,536
do	Berne,	10,000
do	Basle,	31,400
		608,682

Since that period, from 30,000 to 40,000 spindles have been put into activity; and there are at this time mills building, in the neighborhood of St. Gall chiefly, which, when completed, will contain from 100,000 to 150,000 more, so rapid is the increase in the cotton-spinning trade of Switzerland. The water-power is of course invaluable, and gives the Swiss an advantage of which it is not easy to over-estimate the value. The Swiss mills are generally of less magnitude than the English or

Scotch mills. At Uznacht there is a splendid new mill, belonging to a company, driving 24,480 spindles, just erected, of four stories, containing 100 windows on each side. It is fitted up in first-rate style, and is remarkable for its cleanliness and airiness. It has an unceasing supply of water from a mountain torrent, which descends immediately behind it. The largest mills are those at Windisch and Turgi, with 35,000 spindles each, belonging, the former to Henry Kemtz, and the latter to the Brothers Bebie. The average number of spindles in the Swiss mills is not above 1000 spindles, but that is including a great number of very small ones, which drive from 100 to 200 each. From 2000 to 6000 are the commonest number of spindles in a mill.

The average prices of the yarn (mule twist) are as follows:

	s.	d.		s.	d.
No. 40, good second quality,	1	0	No. 70, ...	1	7½
" 40, best second, ...	1	2	" 70, ...	1	9½
" 40, first quality, ...	1	3	" 70, ...	2	0
" 60, good second quality,	1	5	" 80, ...	2	0
" 60, best second, ...	1	6½	" 80, ...	2	2
" 60, first quality, ...	1	8	" 80, ...	2	3

Upwards of 40,000 cwt. of raw cotton is consumed in the Canton of Zurich alone, mostly spun into Nos. 30 to 50, though up to No. 130 are spun in small quantities. About one-seventh of the cotton tissues are printed. The total number of individuals engaged from first to last in the cotton manufactures, is but little short of 20,000. A large importation of English yarns from Nos. 80 upwards, finds its way to this and the neighboring Canton of St. Gall.

The numbers spun in 1836 were mostly under No. 80, but now Nos. 120 and 160, of excellent quality, are spun extensively. At present, English yarns under 160, find no market in Switzerland.

Mr. Wegermann, of St. Gall, exported cotton twist extensively to Leipsig with great success, realizing a fair profit. Mills have lately been erected which will spin 180.

The only great disadvantage they possess in Switzerland, is higher priced iron; as to fuel, they enjoy an exemption from it altogether, from the abundance of water-power. Whatever disadvantages remain to be deducted, on the score of carriage on the raw material, &c., are balanced by the rate of wages being at least one-third below the average in Lancashire. Machine making is advancing rapidly in perfection, and the aptitude of the work-people is advancing in improvement. On the whole it is certain, after the carriage is added, that English yarn will find no sale in Switzerland.

There are several cotton spinning mills in Argovia.

The prices of this production have fallen considerably here as elsewhere. No. 40's chain (mule twist) was sold in 1813 in Arau for 7fr. 20 cent. per English lb. It is now 1 fr. 60 cent. per lb. The reduction has been thus in far greater proportion than even that of the cost of the raw material; for, in 1813, cotton wool, of medium quality, was 300 fr. per quintal, and now costs 108 fr. per quintal. The reduction in the price of twist having been in double proportion, proves the advance made in the aptitude of the workmen, and the perfection of machinery; though cotton-spinning was at one period (1828) threatened by the opposition of the working classes, who, (where one-fourth of the whole population vote) have the government of the canton entirely in their own hands. In 1830, the laboring classes opposed themselves with renewed vigor to the cotton mills, and two years afterwards some outrages were committed. *The power of education triumphed, however, over the narrow prejudices on first sight impressions, which alone countenance doubts as to the benefit to the people of increased machinery.* The people themselves recognised the truth of the great principles which demonstrates *the inseparable identity of their own interests with the abundance of those productions which constitute the wealth of a nation, and necessarily regulate the laborer's share.* The laboring classes (themselves the legislature) have enacted laws confirming and promoting the march of machinery.

Woven Goods or Tissues.—Walkringen is the chief seat of the manufacture of *damasks*, and, from its growth within a comparatively recent period, there is every reason to apprehend that these articles will eventually hold a first-rate rank among the productions of the Swiss looms. The Messrs. Miescher of Walkringen, and Col. Geisbühler, of Berne, state that "Bernese table-cloths and napkins are, by their cheapness, enabled to compete successfully, even with those of Belgium."

A large quantity of trowser stuffs are also manufactured in the same district; some are of duck, others with a mixture of wool, and many striped, chiefly for the South American markets, whither considerable exportations are made. Berne and Langenthal, in the Canton of Arau, are the chief markets for the linen webs of the Bernese district.

The wages of the linen weavers are lower, when the price of provisions is considered, by about 15 per cent. than at Dunfermline, in Scotland.

Ginghams and ribbons are the chief tissues woven in Argovia.

The weaving of a 12^{00} gingham, 30 inches in width, with turkey red and white check: chains about No. 20, and weft 40, over-wefted in the proportion of 20 to 17, costs 11 fr. for 82 French ells of 44 inches each; winding and all *et ceteras* paid for by the weaver. The piece of 82 ells, usually woven in a fortnight; gross wages, therefore, on this work would be only 5 fr. 50 per week (or $1,03) from which winding, say 14 cents, has to be deducted, together with all the incidental expenses to the weaver of upholding the loom, for which deduct 24 cents more, LEAVING 65 CTS. PER WEEK NET WAGES. The sale-price of these ginghams, wholesale, (fast colors,) average about 9d sterling per French ell, or 7 $\frac{4}{11}$ per English yard; discount 10 per cent.

A sort of striped ginghams are also extensively woven here, for Italian cloaks (stripe in the weft) 12^{00} tram, 45 inches wide. These goods are for printing cloths. Wages paid for weaving are 27 fr. for 90 ells, of which 6 ells are considered a good day's work; making about $1.26 per week, gross wages. Price of these goods, wholesale, is 2 fr. 50 cent. per ell; discount 10 per cent.; a franc being about 18$\frac{3}{4}$ cents.

A large branch of the industry of Argovia is devoted to the production of *straw* and *silk* articles, chiefly for the Italian and American markets. The wages paid for these do not materially differ from the above. *The profits gained in the manufacture of these goods are exceedingly large, owing to improvements of recent date.*

Silk Tissues in Zurich.—Since the fifteenth century, the silk manufactures of Zurich have been known to Europe, more recently to this country. The manufacture of ginghams, and other cotton goods, as well as of worsted and woollens, is also carried on to a considerable extent.

The silks are chiefly plain, and even those which are figured, are of a lighter texture than the produce of the Lyonese looms, *with which the Zurich manufacturers are in direct competition.*

At Hausen the silk manufactures are very extensive. The following are the nature of the fabrics, and the prices paid for weaving them:

1st. Marcellines plain black silk, 18^{oo} (*i. e.*, having 3600 chains in the width of 37½ inches:) width 31 inches. Wages, 30 fr. for 60 ells. Time, four weeks making, 7 fr. 50 cent. gross wages per week. Wholesale price of these silks, 5 fr. 85 cent. per ell.

2d. Gros d'Orleans, 16^{oo}, thick warp and weft, width 31 inches. Turin organsine chain, 28 a 30. Milan weft, 28s to 36s. Wages 40 fr. per 60 ells; average period of work, six weeks, or 6 fr. 66 cent. gross wages per week; price 8 fr. 60 cent. per ell.

3d. Florentine plain white silk, 18^{oo} (or 3600 chains in 37½ inches;) 22 inches wide, single wefted (*tramé a un bout.*) Weight of weft for whole piece, 2 livres 2 ounces; do. do., or chains of organsine, 30 ounces. Wages for whole piece, 15 fr.; time necessary, on average, to complete it, nearly 3 weeks, giving average gross wages 5 fr. per week; selling wholesale price, 2 fr. 80 cent.

4th. Serge (silk) thin and fine, 22 inches wide, vary 8 fl. or 20 fr. for 52 ells; woven in 3¼ weeks, or 23 day's labor, making 17½ sous per day, or 5 fr. average per week. Price 3 fr. 50 cent. per ell.

5th. Green Florentine, 18^{oo}, single wefted, 17 inches wide. Wages 9 fr. for 500 ells, requiring 2 week's labor, and giving average of 4 fr. 50 cent. gross wages per week; price 2 fr. per ell.

The beams are all warped by the manufacturer. The number of individuals employed in the silk manufacture cannot be estimated at less than 14,000. Improvements are constantly making in the texture, body and designs of the fancy goods, and it is very probable that a successful, if not formidable, competition will be shortly established with the Lyonese and Spitalfield's looms, in every description of silk goods.

"St. Gall is the chief canton for muslins and fine ginghams. Embroidery is also extensively carried on. In the manufacture of figured muslins and ginghams, the Swiss are completely ruining the Scotch manufacturers. They even offer their goods in the Glasgow market, at as low, or lower prices, than they could be produced for in that city. *In plain muslins*, it is not possible for the Scotch and Lancastrians long to maintain their ground. In all these articles, these cantons are unquestionably enabled to meet either the Scotch or the English, except in the article of lappets, which are woven in Scotland for *starvation wages.* In embroideries, which are most beautiful for curtains and drapery, and likewise in the large-flowered coarse muslins, for the second class curtains, &c., they beat the British both in price and design. The superiority of Swiss dyes gives a great preference to their goods over the English and Scotch. In order to give an idea of the evenness of the race in prices at the present moment, we subjoin a table of the prices of, as nearly as possible, similar articles at St. Gall and Glasgow. In each case, we have taken the average wholesale prices, struck from the returns of different manufacturers in both places.

ARTICLES.	No. of chains in 18½ inches.	Width in in.	No. of Yarn.		How Wefted.	Price per Yard.			
						St. Gall.		Glasgow.	
			Ch.	W		s.	d.	s.	d.
Gingham	16^{oo}	30	70s.	80s.	3 shots ov'r	0	7	0	7½
Do	18^{oo}	30	80	90	equal	0	7¾	0	8½
Imitation Cambric	20^{oo}	35	100	115	1 shot over	0	11	1	0
Mull Muslin	12^{oo}	35	100	115	3 shots ov'r	0	9½	0	9
Do.*	15^{oo}	35	160	175	do.	0	11½	1	0
Figured Muslin for window-curtains	18^{oo} 90 flow'r lash	46	130	145	do.	1	8	1	10
Colored Lappets	15^{oo}	36	100	110	1 shot over	0	7½	3	9 for 10 yds.
Common Muslin Checks	14^{oo}	35	100	110	2 sh'ts und.	0	5½	0	6½
Colored Striped Muslin, Turkey-eyed	14^{oo}	36	95	100	do.	0	7	0	8½
Strong Cotton Stripes†	16^{oo}	20	40	45	do.	with red 4 without 3½		....	
Pullicates, Turkey-red	18^{oo}	30 by 28	50	55	1 shot over	4s 2d pr. doz.		4s 3d pr. doz.	

* These articles are prepared and stiffened like book-muslins.

† These (called Printannieres) were formerly purchased in the Scottish and English markets, but are now made in large quantities in St. Gall, for the Levant, America and Italy.

The St. Gallians also manufacture articles with great taste for the Italian markets. Common pullicates, dark colors, mostly 14^{oo}, 34 inches square, are made to have an appearance resembling silk by the hot cylinder; and are sold at 3 florins 20 kreutzers the dozen.

The system of manufacturing in these districts, is nearly similar to that of France. The merchant is not, as in Scotland, also the manufacturer; there is a middle man between him and the weaver, who sometimes receives the yarn from the merchant, and returns him the goods woven. This personage is called the *fabricant;* he makes his own terms with the weavers, to which the merchant is not privy, and generally lives among them. As this man has his own profit to make, the wages paid for weaving are extremely low, and are as nearly as possible the same in money as those of Scotland. The average wages of adults, who work twelve and thirteen hours per day, do not exceed from $1.15 to $1.20 weekly, though on the finer work $1.40 to $1.60 may be made.

Manufacturing industry is already well developed in the Canton of Glarus, and is rapidly extending in the Grisons.

The Grisons is a canton hitherto remarkable more for the produce of its pastures than its looms. Nevertheless, manufacturing industry has taken root there, and, as far as cotton-spinning goes, it is likely that, in ten years' time, no canton will surpass it, if its natural advantages, both in respect to abundance of iron, and water, and wood, be made available.

At Basle the ribbon manufactures are flourishing, and a brisk competition is kept up with St. Etienne.

There are not less than 20,000 persons in this and the neighboring cantons who work for Basle manufacturers, and to whom, generally, the looms belong, of those weavers who work in the town of Basle, living themselves in the suburbs. The necessity of preserving the privacy of patterns, *renders it necessary to work in factories.*

The other manufactures of Basle, such as hosiery, printing cotton, &c., are pretty extensive.

COTTON MANUFACTURES OF AUSTRIA.

Having given an account of the manufacture of cotton, &c. in Switzerland under the free trade system, we now present to our readers an account of the cotton manufactures of Austria, where they are fully and completely protected by the government, leaving our readers to draw their own conclusions, as to the effects of these two systems in Europe.

It will be at once seen, that the wages of labour in Austria, though much below the prices paid in the United States, greatly exceed those in Switzerland; and instead of any fears being entertained, that English manufactures will destroy this portion of Austrian industry, we find, that it is going on increasing, and that there is every prospect that it will soon not only supply the whole demand, but that in coarser calicoes they are already commencing to export.

Cotton-spinning is greatly encouraged by the Austrian government, who have afforded this manufacture a protecting duty on British cotton twist, of 15 florins* on 123 lb. English weight, about 6 cents per lb.

The Austrian government most rigorously enforces the protecting duty; they make all the Austrian spinners keep a book for the entry of all the yarns spun, and the weavers, of all the yarn they buy. This they compare with the imports, and are often enabled to trace the purchase of smuggled yarn to the culprit.

The internal manufactures continually approximate nearer to a total supply of the internal demand, and in the coarser calicoes some exports are taking place.

In woven goods, the Vorarlberg hand-loom weavers are subjected to the competition of those of Bohemia, where wages are much lower, and where the condition of the weaver must be fully as bad as those of Scotland and Lancashire.

In the production of yarn, the same disadvantages attend this industry, which have been alluded to in Switzerland, namely, dearness of iron, and distance from cotton marts, but, nevertheless, there is evident scope for larger produce; and the increase which has taken place in this manufacture, evidences its capacity of progress. In 1828 there were 400,000 spindles in Austria; and there are now upwards of 600,000; new mills being also in the course of erection. The following extract, from the returns to the Austrian government, exhibits one or two specimens of the productive power of their spinning machinery:

Name of Mills.	No. of Mules.	No. of Spindles.	No. of Yarn spun.	No. of 5 lb. bundles in a year.
			s. s.	
Schloppenhof (Bohemia,)	......	11,520	20 to 130	24,000
Gabel, Riehler's	4	576	30 to 60	3,456
Schonan (Austria,)	......	25,000	30 to 70	100,000
†Bludenz,	36	5,508	34 av'age.	24,000

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* An Austrian florin is 48 cents

† This mill has been burnt down, and another of 12,000 spindles has just been erected.

The cost, in Austria, of a cotton mill of 16,000 spindles, would be about £27,000, which would be at the rate of £2 per spindle; whereas, at the ordinary estimate of 17s. 6d. per spindle, such a mill would cost in England, only £14,000. Cotton wool is brought from Trieste the whole way on the axle. However, the long hours, the low wages, compared with English, the water-power costing nothing, fully compensate for the cost of erection; and this important branch of industry may be considered to be in a very thriving state.

The Messrs. Kennedy and Escher have lately erected several fresh mills in Piedmont and Sardinia, and a paper-making establishment at Roveredo; the extent of their enterprise is considerable, and their mills (they have also a power-loom factory nine miles from Feldkerch,) on the Austrian side of the Rhine, combine the markets of Austria and Switzerland; an advantage which could not be combined on the other side of the Rhine.

In Austria but few differences distinguish the condition of the artisans from those of Germany.

The wages of the factory laborers average as follows:—Spinners, 1 fl* (48 cents) per day; women, from 30 to 40 kr. (24 to 32 cents,) per day; children, 9 to 11 cents per day.

The hours of factory labor in Austria are cruelly long, being frequently in the factories of the interior 15 hours per day, exclusive of meal time; and not unfrequently 17 hours. No law protects the children. At Messrs. Escher and Kennedy's a more humane system is adopted, and the time of work seldom exceeds from 13 to 14 hours.

It appears that the fate of these children has excited some animadversion in Austria, and that the question of shortening the time of work is occupying the attention of the government.

In Austria, the working classes generally are a contented, but certainly an ill-informed people.

The means of life seem pretty equally distributed, according to the manufacturing demand for labour, or the fertility of the soil, compared with the number of the population. In the Tyrol, great poverty prevails, and this forces the natives to migrate and wander over the rest of the Continent, deriving a scanty subsistence from the sale of wares, &c.

The following additional and interesting account of the cotton manufactures of Austria, is contained in a letter from Charles L. Fleischman, Esq., late of the Patent Office, to the Commissioner of Patents. Mr. Fleischman has just returned from Europe, and we are promised by him further information upon the present state of industry there, which we shall take great pleasure in presenting to our readers, as embodying the observations of a gentleman of high intelligence, whose late visit to the other side of the Atlantic was for the purpose of collecting such information.

AUSTRIAN COTTON MANUFACTURES, &c.

The manufacture of cotton goods, although laboring under a great many disadvantages, in regard to perfect machinery, and a less experienced and skilful working class, has developed itself, since the beginning of this century, as one of the most important branches of Austrian industry.

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* The Florin, (Fl.) is about 48 cents, and the Kreutzer, (Kr.) is 1-60th of the florin, or about 2-3ds of a cent.

In the year 1801, a Baron Kobliesky introduced into Austria the first English cotton spinning machines, and established the first cotton factories, which have since increased to 175, with 1,300,000 spindles. Some of these factories are now extensive; as, for instance, that at Pattendorf, which has 47,000, and that of Truman, 32,000 spindles, producing yarn above the No. 100.

Within fifteen years, the importation of raw cotton has increased five-fold, viz: in the year 1828, it amounted to 65,000 cwt.; in the year 1831, it was already double; in 1836, it reached 207,985; in 1837, 223,545; in 1840, 302,694; in 1841, 248,121; and in 1842, 321,377 cwt.

In the year 1834, the government reduced the import duty, from 3 florins 30 kreutzers to 1 florin 40 kreutzers, per cwt., in order to encourage this important branch.

The above stated number of spindles produce, yearly, 214,896 cwt. of yarn and thread, of the following numbers: from 1 to 30, 12,613,074; of 32 to 60, 8,313,327; of 62 to 100, 283,398; above 100, 17,410, and thread, 262,410; in all, 21,489,619 cwt.

In the early stage of the developement of this branch of industry, the importation of yarn, to No. 50, was entirely prohibited, but afterwards admitted, under a duty from 30 to 81 florins, according to the degree of fineness of the article; in the year 1833, it was reduced to 20 florins; and in March, 1845, to 10 florins, or about five dollars per cwt.

This reduced duty increased the importation of fine yarns, in which Austria cannot compete with England. In 1831, it was only 6,773; in 1833, 10,670; in 1838, 57,766; and in 1842, 61,411 cwt.

Austria imports three different kinds of cotton—the Macedonian, Egyptian, and American. The Macedonian is used for the most common yarn, or the numbers from 1 to 10; the American, for the numbers from 12 to 30; for the fine numbers, from 32 to 60, partly American and partly Egyptian; and for the numbers above 60, the best Egyptian.

The average price of the different kinds of cotton stood, in 1841—Macedonian, 32 florins; Egyptian, 48 florins; and American, 37½ florins, per cwt.

The value of Egyptian or Maco cotton has, since 1841, diminished in price, and in 1844 it could be bought for 27 florins per cwt.; the middle quality of American fell in the same period from 37½ florins to 25 florins per cwt.

The Egyptian cotton is of great importance to Austria. In the first place, it is of superior quality, and can be used for the finest numbers; and, secondly, Austria employs her vessels in commerce with Egypt for the transportation.

The whole amount of imported cotton can be estimated at one-eighth Macedonian, two-eighths Egyptian, and five-eighths American—computed at a value of 9,860,000 florins—$4,930,000.

When, to this sum for raw cotton the expense of manufacturing into yarn is added—amounting to 214,896 cwt., valued at 5,260,000 florins—the value of yarn produced in the Austrian manufactories amounts to 15,120,000 florins—$7,560,000.

The low rate of labor has prevented the general introduction of power-looms. Most of the yarn is woven into different goods by hand; and, according to the official statements, there are turned out 5,800,000 pieces, at a value of 20,760,000 florins—$10,380,000.

Great as the increase of manufactured cotton goods appears, within twenty years, there is yet room for a far greater extension. The yearly consumption of cotton goods amounts to 218,000 cwt., of a population of 36,000,000, or two-thirds of a pound, or six yards per head; which is considerably less, when compared with the countries of the German League, where it amounts to two pounds per head.

The extensive production of English cotton yarn, stands to that of Austria, as 12 to 1; to that of France, as 4 to 1, and to those of the German League, as 4 to 3. The importation of cotton yarn into Austria, which amounts to 47,337 cwt., was in the German League three times greater; in France, very small.

COMMERCIAL REVIEW OF HUNT'S MERCHANT'S MAGAZINE—REVIEWED.

The idea has, at several times, suggested itself to us, that it might be useful and acceptable to our readers, that we should adopt the usual course of American periodicals, and give a monthly review of our commerce, which, could it be correctly given, no doubt would be desirable. There is, however, so much difficulty in properly combining the numerous and various elements which enter into the state of commercial affairs at any given period of time, that we have preferred rather to omit the attempt so to do, than to risk misleading our readers, by views of trade which, being unavoidably made up from but partial premises, might mislead the public mind, so far as this periodical may be supposed to influence it.

That partial and fallacious accounts are constantly put forth, and that much injury is often produced by them, we have almost daily proof. Facts are not seldom distorted to sustain particular views, and ex-cathedra opinions are given, based upon unfounded data which, if believed in, must be hurtful to individual interests at home, while disseminating very erroneous impressions abroad.

We are at this time led into these remarks, from a careful examination of an article in Hunt's Merchant's Magazine for September, under the head of "Commercial Chronicle and Review." The writer of the article to which we would call public attention, is evidently an advocate of that ridiculous phantom, called "Free Trade," and he has, as we think, made erroneous statements, and given views and opinions of our present commercial operations and prospects which are wholly unwarrantable. We quote from page 294 of the September number of the periodical we have named.

> COMMERCE.—"During the month which has elapsed since the date of our last article, those great measures of commercial policy which were espoused by the party victorious at the last general election, have become laws. These are, the sub-treasury plan of finance for the federal treasury, the modification of the tariff of 1842, the warehousing system, and the loan bill. The features of these laws are generally well understood; and, therefore, it will not be necessary, in this place, to explain in

detail their provisions. The specie clause of the sub-treasury law does not come into operation until January, 1847. The final passage of these laws was unattended by any marked change in any of the markets. There were attempts by political partisans to promote a panic feeling, seconded by speculators, for selfish purposes; but without success. From the time the election of November, 1844, (turning upon those principles involved in the laws in question,) was decided in favor of the party now in power, the fulfilment of the pledges then made was looked upon as certain. They involved great changes—no less than an entire and a radical change in the commercial policy of the country. Instead of a system of protection to home industry, an entire abandonment of the principle was avowed. Instead of a recognition and support of the paper system, its entire abandonment and disuse by the government was looked for. Instead of the requirement of heavy cash securities, and the payment in full of duties on all imported goods as soon as they arrived, the system of warehousing, without payment of duties, for a year, was anticipated. Each one of these measures was sufficient, if we allow full weight to the importance of governmental enactments, to convulse the whole country, and bankrupt large classes engaged in individual pursuits. Nevertheless, the government policy involved in all three has taken place, after a discussion of many months; and the actual state of the markets, the price of money, the activity of trade, the value of property, and the employment of industry, do not evince that any apprehensions of practically bad effects exist among capitalists and owners. On the other hand, the conviction that the policy of the government is fixed, and cannot again be disturbed, at least for some years, affords a feeling of relief that more than counterbalances any remaining apprehension of deleterious effects from the enactments that have been perfected. The change which has been effected in duties on leading articles is, after all, not large—as, for instance, the price of pig iron in Liverpool in July, 1845, was £4 15s. per ton, or $22 80. On this, the duty was $9 per ton. The price of the same article is now £4 7s., or $20 95; and the 30 per cent. charged under the new tariff, on cost here, will amount to $7 per ton. Refined English bars are quoted abroad at £10 15, or $51 60; and the duty, at 30 per cent. will amount to near $19, against $25. The quotation for similar iron in August, 1845, in Liverpool, was £11 10s., on which 30 per cent. duty here would amount to $20, against 25, actually paid. There is nothing in these changes seriously to affect the iron interest, nor are the changes great on any other articles, unless it may be coarse cottons, which will pay 25 per cent. against 48, which the virtual specific duties under the old tariff actually amounted to."

Now we deny most positively several allegations here made, and ask the attention of our readers to the fallacies they contain. In the first place the writer says, "Each one of these measures (the Sub-treasury, the Tariff and Warehousing law) was sufficient, if we allow full weight to the importance of governmental enactments, to convulse the whole country, and bankrupt large classes in individual pursuits. Nevertheless the government policy in all these has taken place after a discussion of many months, and the actual state of the markets, the price of money, the activity of trade, the value of property, and the employment of industry, do not evince that any apprehension of practically bad effects exist among capitalists and owners."

In answer to this unfounded assertion, we say, that the government policy in all three *has not* taken place. The Tariff does not take effect till December, nor has the Specie clause in the Sub-treasury yet been acted upon. And moreover, the bare enactment of the Sub-treasury by the House of Representatives, before it passed the Senate, created a great sensation in our commercial circles, and caused many representations to be made at Washington in opposition to it. It is a well known fact that many of the friends of the party in power repaired to Washington, and protested against its being enacted into a law. The banks and individuals became alarmed, curtailments in discounts took place, and the value of money rose in the market to double the lawful rate of interest; a general alarm was produced among men of business, and not a few were much embarrassed in their monied arrangements. So much was this felt, that Mr. Webster made inquiries, respecting the time that law was to go into operation; and Mr. Lewis, the Chairman of the Finance Committee of the Senate, gave assurances, that the Sub-treasury Bill as it had passed the lower house, would undergo amendments, and its objectionable features be modified. This, for the moment, quieted the apprehensions of evil that were everywhere felt; and the fact of the large issue of Treasury notes which was subsequently authorised, alone prevented a renewal of the general, we had almost said "panic," that the passage of the Sub-treasury Bill by the House of Representatives had occasioned. Had it not been for this authority to issue treasury notes, we run no risk of error in asserting, that the final passage of the Sub-treasury would have disarranged the whole financial business of the Union.

Another fallacious statement in the article on which we comment is, that "from the time the election of November, 1844, (turning upon those principles involved in the laws in question) was decided in favor of the party now in power, the fulfilment of the pledges then made was looked upon as certain." So far from this being true, the fact is exactly the reverse. The best informed men in the country, of both political parties, were in the greatest doubt about all three of the measures alluded to. The writer of this article has cause to know this to be true—true both in this city, and at Washington. Surely our readers will recollect, that the opinion was almost universal, that no action would be had on the Tariff question; for up to the very last hour before its final passage in the Senate, the vote was involved in the greatest possible doubt. The very day of its passage in the Senate the writer was assured from a very high source, connected with the party in power, that the Tariff of 1842 was all safe, it having been ascertained that the new tariff bill could not pass the Senate.

So much for the basis of the gratuitous and unwarranted statement assumed by our author, that "Nevertheless the government policy in all three has taken place after a discussion of many months—and the actual state of the markets, the price of money, the *activity of trade*, the value of property, and the employment of industry, do not evince that any apprehensions of practically bad effects exist among capitalists and owners."

We confess ourselves filled with amazement, that a statement so utterly unfounded could obtain an insertion in any respectable periodical, as is also the one which immediately follows it, namely, that "On the other hand, the conviction that the policy of the government is fixed, and cannot be again disturbed, at least for some years, *affords a feeling of relief*, that more than counterbalances any remaining apprehensions of deleterious effects from the enactments that have been perfected."

Now we undertake to say, without fear of having our statement disproved, that the actual state of the markets, the price of money, the activity of trade, the value of property, and the employment of industry, *do* evince the most serious apprehensions of practically bad effects of every kind, as well among capitalists and owners, as among those who own nothing, have no capital, and depend upon their daily labor for their daily bread.

The prices of all kinds of merchantable property have greatly fallen, as well for foreign as for domestic goods; private confidence is much impaired, and money consequently rates higher in the money market, except for the most undoubted securities; the wages of labor are on the decline. We hear daily of an actual reduction of wages, and business of every nature and kind is greatly curtailed—certainly as much as one third; and many of the best informed think, compared with last year, quite forty per cent. The onward march of the whole country is arrested, so far as the mining of coal, the making and forging of iron, and the manufacture of cotton and woollen goods, is concerned. The extremely low and unremunerating price of grain and bread stuffs of all kinds, have caused some shipments of these articles at very low freights to England; but this cannot long continue, in the face of their very large and abundant crop, about being gathered—nor, we apprehend, would even the shipments of grain and Indian corn have taken place, but for the disease in the potatoe, which still distresses England and some other parts of Europe.

The accounts of a short cotton crop with which our newspapers are filled, had caused a rise of some half a cent in that article, which, no doubt, the Free Traders will try to attribute to the new Tariff here, and the late Tariff reductions in England, but cotton has since declined.

To sum up the present commercial state of things in few words, it may be with great truth said, and we solemnly aver the fact, that at this present moment, before either the Tariff or the Sub-Treasury has gone into effect, the bare enactment of them has caused the prudent in every branch of trade to proceed with the greatest caution; not knowing what will be the state of things when they shall go into operation. Capital hesitates and declines investment, trade is limited to immediate wants, and every species of industry is more or less curtailed and curtailing.

So much for the unwarrantable assertions of the author on whose facts and opinions we comment respecting trade generally. But these are not the only errors into which he has fallen, and which he has put forth.

"The change, (he says,) which has been effected in duties on leading articles is not large;" and he quotes those on pig and bar iron to prove this, his assertion. To make out his case, he takes their present price in Great Britain, as though these articles were always to remain at the same price; or that *price*, at any time, was a proper datum upon which to found our system of revenue. He has indeed been very unfortunate in the article he has selected, for it is a well established fact, that iron fluctuates more in the English market than any other article. A reference to the record shows that in 1826 and 1827 the highest quotation for bar iron in London was £9 per ton. the lowest that year £8 per ton; in 1828 it fell to £7 per ton; in 1829 to £6 per ton; in 1830 to £5 10; and again in 1831 to £5 per ton. In 1832 it reached as low as £4 15. In 1833 the price rallied to £7, but in 1835 it fell to £5 15; but before the close of the year reached again £7. In 1838 the same kind of iron sold for from £9 to £10, and in July, 1840, fell again to £7. In 1841 it experienced a fall to £5 15, in 1842 to £5, and in

1843 to £4, while in 1844 it rose again to £6, in 1845 it reached £10, and it is now at about £10 15; nearly the highest price at which the article has been since 1826.

What possible calculation can be made by our manufacturers of iron, with the duty assessed upon the foreign price, when it thus fluctuates in value. Our author, in writing about the probability of frauds under the system of *ad valorem* duties, reasons, that because no fraud could take place in pig iron, it would be so of most other articles. That is, that the price of cottons, woollens, silks, worsted, &c., which are multitudinous, and of every grade and degree, could be as easily ascertained as the price of pig iron, and the duties of course as faithfully collected. Surely such an absurdity as this needs no refutation, nor can any reliance be placed upon the opinion of one, who is so wholly ignorant upon the subject upon which he presumes to enlighten the public mind. But to conclude our somewhat extended remarks upon the article under notice —we brand it a tissue of misrepresentation from one end to the other.

We should not deem it so necessary to do this for our own side of the Atlantic, because here facts are well known to every man concerned in trade, which will undoubtedly prevent any evil effec's from it. In this instance, the fallacy is so glaring, that no man of common information could be deceived; but Hunt's Merchant's Magazine circulates abroad, and while it confined itself merely to the record of facts—before it became the decided advocate of Free Trade, it had a deserved reputation. We therefore feel it a duty we owe to the public, thus to unmask the unjustifiable manner in which the author of the Commercial Chronicle and Review, in the September number of that work, has put forth the most unfounded statements and unsound reasonings, with a view to bolster up his Free Trade doctrines, being, as we presume, a full believer in that fallacy.

ON THE DISCOVERY OF THE STEAMBOAT,

WITH A MEMOIR OF JOHN FITCH.

Upon the urgent request of John F. Watson, Esq., of Germantown, Pa., the writer, about two years since, undertook an examination of the claims of John Fitch, of Philadelphia, as an inventor of Steam-Engines and Steamboats. I had long been of the opinion which now pervades the civilized world, that mankind owed to Robert Fulton, not only the improvement, but the *invention* of steamboats; and to ward off a smile which those well versed in the history of the steam-engine and its applications may be inclined to indulge at my expense, the following quotations are made. They show that however erroneous my opinions were in regard to the real author of that contrivance which now rides on every navigable river inhabited by civilized man—defying the elements and exacting the admiration of all—there are very respectable persons entertaining the same opinions.

In 1838 Judge Tannehill writes: "When Fulton *first conceived* the idea of navigating our rapid streams with boats propelled by steam," &c.[*]

[*] Hesperian, vol. ii., p. 106.

Judge Story, in charging the jury in the case of *Washburn & Brown* vs. *Gould*, Boston, 1844, remarks: "Next after Fulton's *wonderful invention* of the steamboat, whose incalculable benefits," &c.

Still later, a writer in the American Review for January, 1845, says: "A few years more saw the spirit of Fulton arise, and *call into existence* what has proved perhaps the most important of the manifold agencies of steam."*

It will be impracticable, in the space at our command, to return through the space of *one hundred and seven years*, to the days of the *Hulls of England*, who, in the year 1737, obtained a patent "for a new invented machine for carrying vessels out of or into any harbor, port or river, against wind and tide, or in a calm," with wheels at the sides of the vessel, and buckets on the periphery, and exhibit to our readers the various contrivances in the nature of self-moving craft that have been thought of by mechanics.

It is not clear that the Hulls had a steam-engine in contemplation as a moving power, although a huge chimney arises from the deck of their vessel, which pours forth abundance of smoke.

Solomon De Caus had written of the power of steam more than one hundred years before this patent was obtained from George II., and from 1612 to 1623, had experimented upon its forces and application.

In 1663 the Marquis of Worcester, an Englishman, wrote of his hundred inventions, and mentions "an admirable and forcible way to drive up water by fire."

Dennis Papin, like De Caus, a native of France, had lived, and experimented upon steam in 1690, Savary in 1698, and Newcomen and Calley, or Cawley, had constructed a rude but improved engine in 1711. But James Watt, though living, had arrived at the age of only one year when Jonathan Hull applied for his patent; and the engine was sleeping in the Philosophical Rooms at the University of Glasgow, an awkward and cumbrous thing. It had hitherto been applied merely as a lifter, acting in a right line. It had been taught to open and shut some of the valves of the condenser; yet its energy was communicated only in one direction, relying upon the atmosphere to bring the piston back to its place. If the Hulls had at this early day an idea of an engine with a *rotary motion, fitted to revolving wheels*, immortal honors are due to their names. The proof of this knowledge is so far deficient as to preclude this idea.

It appears to be a well established fact that John Bernouilli, in France, described a method of propelling a boat in water by means of a pump, and his conception was made public, before the French Academy, in 1753. The power of steam was not relied upon to work the pump, but that of animals or men. Even in the days of Papin and Savary, a boat was worked by animals on the Thames, which had wheels at the side, and was constructed by Prince Rupert. Some accounts, ascending to the time of the Punic war, mention a boat moved by oxen, which the Romans used for the transportation of soldiers across an arm of the sea.

The Spanish nation has lately produced a manuscript, said to have been found at Barcelona; and according to it, Blasco De Garay gave the velocity of a league an hour to a vessel of 200 tons, on the 17th of June, 1543, in the presence of Charles V. and his cabinet.

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* Am. Review, Art. Steam Navigation, p, 22.

But, without resorting to fabulous or uncertain stories, we continue our abstract of the progress of the *developement of the idea* of Steam-Navigation.

Next after Bernouilli came Genevois, in 1759—the Count D'Auxirron, of France, in 1774—the elder Perrier, also a Frenchman, in 1775. The Marquis De Jouffroy turned his attention that way in 1778 and 1781, built a boat to be moved by steam at Bourne le Dimes, which he described in 1783 to the Academy.

Jouffroy experimented many years, and his model boats attained a considerable velocity.

In America, Oliver Evans states that he reflected upon steam vessels as early as 1772—'3, but made no public declaration of his views. Mr. Henry, of Lancaster, and Andrew Ellicott, as appears from conversations with Mr. Fitch, had, during the progress of the American Revolution, secretly conceived of some plan for effecting the same object.

In France, the Abbe Raynal had projects of the same kind in 1781.

This rapid view of inventors and improvers in steam power brings us to the time when experiments began to be made upon the same subject in America. The first with which we are acquainted in this country, took place in secret, in presence of a few friends, near Shepherdstown, Va., during the fall of 1784.* It was made by James Rumsey, a native of Maryland and resident of Virginia, who had conceived of the project in 1783. Rumsey's boat had a capacity of six tons, and was first set in motion privately during the darkness of the night, the first public experiment having been made in the year 1786 † or 1787‡.

Mr. Fitch conceived of a plan to move water craft in April, 1785. Returning one Sunday from church, in the township of Warminster, Buck's county, Pa., a *chair*, a riding vehicle with wheels, passed along the road. Reflecting upon its motion, he supposed that it might be made to traverse the country by the force of steam. After a short time he concluded this to be impracticable, and turned his thoughts upon a scheme of propelling vessels in water by the same agency.

I deem it unnecessary to proceed further in the chronological notice of improvements in steamboats. The reference to inventors will be made hereafter without much regard to the order of time.

There were in Scotland, Miller, of Dalwinston, 1787, Lord Stanhope, 1793, and Hunter and Dickinson, 1801, in England; in France, Des Blanes, 1802; in America, John Stevens, Jun., 1790—'1, and R. R. Livingston, 1798. This crowd of inventors labored, experimented and suffered, before Mr. Fulton's boat was constructed at Plombieres, in 1803. Their several machines had produced a speed of two or three miles an hour, which was not of sufficient practical importance to attract the attention of commercial men. But these facts show incontestibly how little room there was for the exercise of *original invention* in the conception of a steamboat in the year 1793. They also show how little had been done towards perfecting the boat in the years 1783—'5, when the American improvers took up the subject. My object is to establish some points wherein it appears that public sentiment has been misled from the truth. The passages above quoted, and numberless expressions uttered in conversation, whenever the subject of the achievements of steam is introduced—in fact, the universal sentiment of mankind, has placed the era of Steam-Navigation in the year 1807, when the *Clermont* made her first trip along the Hudson at the rate of *four and seven-tenths* miles per hour.

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* Reports of Congress Committees, 1836—7, vol. ii., No. 317. Letters of Washington, Jan. 31, 1786, and Nov. 22, 1787.

† Reports of Committees, 1838—9, No. 265—and 1836—7, No. 317.

‡ Virginia Gazette of Nov. or Dec. 1787.

This opinion, so well fixed and so prevalent, has descended from the generation which was astonished by the appearance of this boat, and of the *Paragon*, *Car of Neptune*, and their consorts, to another who have inherited the belief of their ancestors. Opinions derived from our forefathers require but little confirmatory proof. They are often received not only without evidence, but without the desire of it; without research, without question. They amount to more than belief. They may be regarded as a prejudice, a condition of mind where contradiction is disagreeable, and of investigation not only disagreeable but forbidden. I have felt this bias, and can appreciate its force. My investigations have, however, driven me, step by step, from my original conclusions in regard to the date of the great impulse which inland navigation received by steam. A thousand circumstances have conspired to conceal from the public, experiments made and results obtained at Philadelphia in the last century. An examination of those experiments may be tedious, but may also be interesting. It will introduce, in a new light, a man of extraordinary character—without education or property, struggling against adversity, against ridicule, neglect, want, and an accumulation of misfortunes, to perfect an invention which his age could not comprehend.

The investigation will exhibit a mechanical genius, so far absorbed in its great idea, as to abandon self, suffer wrong, and perform astonishing labors, to accomplish a stupendous undertaking, in advance of the times in which he lived. I think it will be acknowledged, that the undertaking *was* accomplished. If the *improvement* of an engine to work on land, upon fixed machinery, was an act of sufficient merit to immortalize the name of James Watt in England, will not the *construction* of an engine, by John Fitch in America, at the same time, and capable of driving a vessel upon water, ensure *his* name a place among those who have acquired reputation and honor as improvers upon Savary and Newcomen? How many have added valuable parts to the engine since it came from the hands of De Caus? Two centuries and a quarter of time have been expended in perfecting, increment by increment, a machine, which, at this day, possesses the manual facilities of man, and the strength of many thousands. One man, one age, was insufficient to produce this result. The ingenious of many generations have spent the force of their mechanical talents, in the study and improvement of the engine alone. Hundreds and thousands have wasted life and patrimony, during the last three quarters of a century, upon the improvement of the boat, to be moved by its expanding powers. All this sacrifice, this thought, this loss of ease, peace, money, friends, and human life, was necessary to, and worthy of, the result. Every individual who made an advance upon his predecessors, has been added to the list of fame; except the obliterated and forgotten name of Fitch. How many of all those who ride over the waters of the earth, impelled by the force of steam, ever heard it pronounced? What boat of all the seas and rivers of the two continents, has his name upon her sides? And among the scattered reminiscences which his surviving friends here and there publish to the world, how few are credited, or even received in memory. Among those who have charge of the engine, now performing its delicate and wonderful duties in every city, town and village of importance, within the range of manufacturing enterprise, can *ten men* be found who are aware that John Fitch lived, and obtained the first regular rotary movement of its parts in America. Oliver Evans, probably the most extensive improver of the engine in the new world, is well known to his countrymen. His name is familiar, and his exalted merits, as a mechanic, are acknowledged, not only in the United States, but on the other shore of the Atlantic. But from the imperfect biographical notices within our reach, it does not appear that in 1785 Mr. Evans had *constructed* any of his projected improvements upon engines and steam carriages.

Before Mr. Fitch had devoted his talents to the subject, Mr. Evans, undoubtedly, arrived at conclusions in regard to steam machinery; for, in 1781, he had asserted that, by the "power of steam, he could drive anything, wagons, mills, or vessels." But if any of these conceptions were, at this time, reduced to practice, and made visible to the world, his historians are not in possession of the facts. His petition to the Legislature of Pennsylvania for a monopoly, is dated in the year 1786. At this time, Mr. Fitch had constructed a working model, with a cylinder, at first, of one inch in diameter, and afterwards of three inches, in which *continuous rotary motion* was effected. Of his first attempts at an engine, he makes the following assertion: "What I am now to inform you of, I know will not be to my credit; but so long as it is the truth, I will assert it, viz: that I did not know there was a steam-engine on earth when I proposed to gain a force by steam. I leave my first draft and descriptions behind, that you may judge whether I am sincere or not. A short time after, drawing my first draft for a boat, I was amazingly chagrined to find at Parson Irwin's, in Bucks county, a drawing of a steam-engine, but it had the effect to establish me in my other principles, as my doubts lay at that time in the engine only."*

This was in April, 1785. The improvements of Watt were, some of them, patented in 1769; but his patents for rotary motion, four in number, bear date from 1782 to 1785. For parallel motion, he received a patent in 1784. If Mr. Rumsey had, at this time, constructed an engine, it was such an one as, without rotary motion, would work a pump by a right line movement. For locomotives, for machinery in general, and for vessels, this continuous, regular revolving apparatus is not only necessary, but indispensable. The uses of the engine, without the faculty of unceasing revolution, would be limited and insignificant, as they were, before the time of Watt.

Mr. Fitch constructed a rotary engine, and put it in operation. Did he invent, as well as construct, this rotation? Had the improvements, made in England within the three previous years, reached him in Pennsylvania? Were they generally known, even in England, at that time? Were they published?—were they sent to America? Had Evans communicated with Fitch? Had Rumsey? and if he had, was there any thing in the pumping engine that could be applied to the revolving engine? To sustain the affirmative of these queries, we know of no proof. The American colonies were at war with England, and intercourse was unfrequent, until after the peace of 1783. The presumption is in favor of the negative to them all. Rumsey's machine was kept a secret until within a few months of April, 1785. Communication was irregular and slow—mails and newspapers few, and not within the means of poor mechanics like Fitch and Rumsey. Fitch himself was in the wilds of Ohio, and the Northwest—a prisoner among savages, from 1782 to 1783, and from '83 to '85 remained in the obscure village of Warminter, laboring at the business of a silver-smith to procure his bread.

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* Fitch's Manuscript Writings

In addition to these circumstances, there is the following paper, which may be found in the American State Papers (miscellaneous) vol. 1, p. 12. It is a copy of his petition to Congress, dated June 2d, 1790, and says, "That the great length of time, and vast resources of money, expended in bringing the scheme to perfection, have been wholly occasioned by his total ignorance of the *steam engine*, a perfect knowledge of which has not been acquired without an infinite number of fruitless experiments; for not a person could be found who was acquainted with the *new engine* of Bolton and Watt. Whether your petitioner's engine is similar to those in England or not, he is at this moment totally ignorant, but is happy to inform Congress, that he is now able to *make a complete steam-engine*, which, in *its effects*, is equal to the best in Europe."

In 1803, thirteen years after this affirmation was made, the work shops of America could not furnish an engine.* Mr. Fitch regarded the construction of the engine as the *great obstacle;* and to overcome this, what resources of knowledge were within his reach, other than the *original* inventive powers of his own mind? Dr. William Thornton, one of the Philadelphia company, says they labored "under the disadvantages of never having seen an engine, and of not having a single engineer in our company or pay; we made engineers of common blacksmiths,"† &c. In England, from whence alone such information could have been drawn, no such engine existed, and therefore could not have furnished the ideas, model or descriptions for this. An engine for a cotton mill was incapable of driving a boat without material alteration. Twenty years afterwards, Mr. Fulton regarded the *adaptation of the engine* of Watt, made to order in England, expressly for the use of the *Clermont* upon the Hudson, as the greatest difficulty in his path to success. The new parts, necessary to be added, the new forms to be given to parts then in existence, in order to conform to the limited space of the hold, and to connect with the shafts or axles of the wheels, were, to him, the principal causes of doubt. At this time, (1807) when the genius of

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* Renwick on Steam—266.

† Lives of Eminent Mechanics—p. 32.

Fulton was so much embarrassed by the *fitting and application* of the engine, its construction had been brought to a high state of perfection in Europe, and he had the assistance of Watt himself in overcoming those obstacles. In 1785—'6—'7, Fitch had no Watt, no engine, no machinist who had made or ever seen one, no work shop and tools, no detailed descriptions.

My purpose has been, thus far, to exhibit the powerful resources of his intellect, as applied to *engines*. As we advance, it will appear more fully what kind of an engine he produced, and what were its effects. For the present, let it be remembered, that the first *rotary engine* in America was conceived by him in 1785, and a working model finished in 1786. I shall not dwell longer upon the proofs and arguments in favor of his *originality* as an inventor of this engine, leaving the facts advanced to produce their effects. If it is claimed that its prior existence in Europe takes away the merit of *first* invention, it cannot be asserted that *the engine as applied to his boat* is not a *new*, as well as an original invention. The moving agent of Jouffroy, if in principle, form or substance, similar to the one of Fitch, not being known as such in America, in England, or in France, either in 1785 or in 1845, could not have been the model from which the Philadelphia mechanic obtained his ideas.

It will be necessary to omit the personal history of Mr. Fitch. His life, as a mere popular narrative, might be invested with an intense interest. It would prove the truth of his own words concerning himself, as "one of the most singular, as well as one of the most unfortunate of men." It would exhibit misfortune and suffering, great undertakings, followed by disappointment and despondency—great force of character, courage and pride. It would show personal antipathies to be regretted, and noble sentiments to be admired. Tenderness, as a parent, would appear in strange contrast with an unforgiving temper, as a husband—honorable impulses, and raging passions, contending in the same bosom. His intellect bore the stamp of originality and independence, his foresight had the air of prophecy. He was born at Windsor, Connecticut, January 21, 1743, (O. S.) and remained in that vicinity until about twenty-five years of age, receiving a very scanty common-school education. By the severity of his father and elder brother, his life at home was rendered wretched; and he was bound an apprentice to a watch-maker, without, however, having acquired a knowledge of the trade. An unfortunate marriage crowned the misery of his condition, and in 1769 he became an adventurer of fortune. After many wanderings, he became a resident watch-maker at Trenton, New-Jersey, where he exercised his trade at the commencement of the Revolution. The demand for arms induced him to undertake the business of gun-smith for the American forces, which exposed his property to destruction, when the British entered that village in December, 1776. He joined the troops of New-Jersey, and endured the rigors of a winter camp at Valley Forge.

Retiring from camp, he recommenced the trade of a silver-smith, in Buck's county, Pa., occasionally traversing the county on foot to repair the clocks and watches of the inhabitants. Having procured an appointment as Deputy Surveyor, from the State of Virginia, he started for

Kentucky with a knapsack upon his back, and a compass in his hand, in the spring of 1780.

In the fall of 1781, he returned to Philadelphia, having made extensive surveys between the Kentucky and Green Rivers. In the spring of 1782, collecting the fragments of $4000, which had been received in continental money, he was barely able to raise £150, Pennsylvania currency, as a capital for Western adventure. At the mouth of the Muskingum this remnant of his fortune, invested in flour and goods, was captured and destroyed by Indians, two of the party killed, and nine taken prisoners. Fitch had the address to conciliate Capt. Buffaloe, the leader of the band, and the physical endurance to sustain the rigors of Indian slavery.

After various adventures he reached Warminster in the winter of '82—'3, penniless and dejected. Here he resided when the 'unfortunate' inspiration came across his mind in regard to steam.

"From that time (1785) I have (he says) pursued the idea to this day (1792) with unremitting assiduity, yet do frankly confess that it has been the most imprudent scheme that I ever engaged in. The perplexities and embarrassments through which it has caused me to wade, far exceeded anything that the common course of life ever presented to my view."

To comprehend more clearly what ground Mr. Fitch occupied as an inventor, we must revert to the engine and the boat. An engine having long been known, it was not the subject of *conception*, as a new and unheard of thing. The idea of a boat to be moved by steam having also been known and discussed, could not at that day have been thought of as a first invention. The proof, it appears to me, is conclusive, that in regard to both the engine and boat, Mr. Fitch had formed a connected plan before it was known to him that they existed. That he was therefore an *original*, but not a *new* or first inventor.

The field then open to the speculator in boats and engines, embraced only the *improvements* and *applications*. The knowledge of this fact struck down his rising hopes of renown and usefulness. He had seen the rivers of the West, and had heard, from the Indians, of many lakes and streams far away in the North and Northwest. He had trod the rich soil of Kentucky, the Scioto, and the Miami rivers, and foresaw the capacity of the region watered by those streams for the support of life and commerce. His brain was fired with the thought that the navigation of those rivers might be effected by his agency, and for a time he luxuriated in the delusion that no mortal had conceived of a similar project. But stripped of those lofty anticipations, he persevered as an improver, in what he had commenced as an inventor. What ground was yet unoccupied? The experiments of Rumsey, though unknown to Fitch, had been made. A boat had been moved upon the Potomac, with the velocity of three miles an hour, and was afterwards increased to "four or five." It is said that Jouffroy had procured a motion of three miles an hour likewise, unknown to Fitch. The abstract question of *a boat* was no longer open to invention, nor was the first construction of a *self-moving craft* to be made twice.

There was room, however, for the *invention* and *construction* of *such a* *boat*, as should, by *different* arrangements, machinery and apparatus, *be an improvement* upon all known steam vessels.

And it is not of so much importance in estimating the merits of an invention to know all that has been done, as to regard what has been thought of or made which is identical. The fact that the end to be attained is the *same*, by no means precludes the idea of arriving at it by *different* methods. That meritorious mechanic, Rumsey, selected *one* mode, Jouffroy *another*, and Fitch a *third*. The name of all these contrivances was the same, and the object the same. In each case there was a floating vessel and an internal power, the whole called by a common name, the " Steamboat." Between the central force and the water, or medium on which it must be applied, there was a gap not filled. The boat of our days has received a connecting apparatus, which transfers the power of the steam cylinder to the surface of the water by means of cranks, shafts, wheels and buckets.

It is *this boat as reduced to practice*, that has received so much admiration and been of such vast utility. At that day it did not exist—now it does—*who made it what it is?* The discussion is naturally confined to *such a boat*, and does not logically range through all manner of boats that have ever been thought of or tried.

To compare more directly the methods adopted by the two American competitors, and to compress the presentation of the subject as much as possible, I have postponed the description of these respective boats, and here introduce them:

Description of the Boat of James Rumsey.

" Rumsey's boat was about 50 feet in length; was propelled by a pump worked by a steam-engine, which forced a quantity of water up through the keel; the valve was then shut by the return stroke, which at the same time forced the water through a channel or pipe, a few inches square, lying above and parallel to the kelson out at the stern, under the rudder. The impetus of this water forced through the square channel against the exterior water acted as an unfailing power upon the vessel. The reaction of the effluent water propelled her at the rate above mentioned, (four or five miles an hour) when loaded with three tons in addition to the weight of her engine, of about one-third of a ton. The boiler was quite a curiosity, holding no more than five gallons of water, and needing only a pint at a time. The whole machinery did not occupy a space greater than that required for four barrels of flour. The fuel consumed was not more than four to six bushels of coal in twelve hours. Rumsey's other project was to apply the power of a steam-engine to long poles, which were to reach the bottom of the river, and by that means push a boat against the current."*

Description of the Boat of John Fitch, published by himself in the Columbian Magazine, Dec. 1786.

" The cylinder is to be horizontal, and the steam to work with equal force at both ends. The mode by which we obtain a vacuum is, we believe, entirely new, as is also the method of letting the water into it and throwing it off against the atmosphere without any friction. It is expected that the cylinder, which is *twelve* inches in diameter, will move with a clear force of eleven or twelve hundred cwt., after the frictions are deducted; this force to be directed against a wheel eighteen inches in diameter. The piston is to move about *three* feet, and each vibration of it is to give the axis (or shaft) about forty evolutions. Each evolution of the axis moves *twelve oars*, or paddles, five and a half feet. They work perpendicularly, and are represented by the strokes of the paddle of a canoe; as six of the paddles are raised from the water six more are entered, (three on a side) and the two sets of paddles make their strokes of about eleven feet at each revolution. The cranks of the axis act upon the paddles about one-third of their length from their lower ends, on which part of the oar the whole force of the axis is applied. The engine is placed at the bottom of the boat, about one-third from the stern, and both the action and evolution turn the wheel the same way."

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* Stuart's Anecdotes of the Steam-Engine.

Such are the two schemes of navigation which occupied the minds of Rumsey and Fitch, which became the ruling passion of their souls, and continued to employ their mental and physical energies until the last hours of life. It was in respect to these projects, so widely different, that between them an animated personal controversy arose during their lives for the honor of the priority and value of their respective machines. It would seem that they were pursuing paths so far asunder that no collision of this kind was necessary. It would be difficult to point out in the machinery a single article common to the two boats, except the boiler and the floating craft. Whatever merit belongs to either may be shared in its fullest extent without derogating from the other. Rumsey invented in 1783, experimented in 1784, and more fully in 1786 or '87. Fitch invented in 1785, experimented in 1786, and performed on a large scale in 1788. Both began as *original* inventors, but both had the mortification to learn that they were not *prior* inventors. For Rumsey's propelling arrangement, Bernoulli had pre-occupied the ground *fifty years* before, and as to the engine, the invention had been known more than a century. In this respect, however, the engine of Fitch is to the engine of Rumsey as an *improved* machine, what Watt is to Newcomen. The latter was without circular motion, without, therefore, a complicated connecting series, without axles or shafts, cranks or cog wheels. The engine of the former appears to have included the "double acting" principle by which the old *atmospheric* engine was made a true and real *Steam* engine, working, as he says, "with equal force at both ends."

This improvement, like that of a good rotary motion, was likewise introduced by Watt about the same time. We have no account of the precise time when Mr. Fitch made this addition, or whether it was original with him or not. Neither am I able at this time to ascertain the exact period when Mr. Watt first made known to the world his invention of the double acting cylinder. It is reported that he retained it as a secret a long time after his own conceptions were matured. If made public in 1785—'6, whether it had reached Mr. Fitch at Warminster, is also involved in doubt. For this, as for the rotating apparatus, I refer to his own statement made many years after to the American Congress. His first model was completed in brass, in August, 1785, having its machinery perfect, and bearing at its sides *wheels* instead of *paddles*. The paddles were adopted in 1786, after experimenting upon the wheels.

Dr. Franklin, in the fall of 1785, had written an essay upon navigation, discarding the use of wheels, and adopting the plan of Bernoulli.

The buckets of the wheel were found to labor too much in the water, entering as they did at a considerable angle, and departing at the same. They lost power by striking the surface, and afterwards by lifting themselves out of the water. This led to the substitution of oars or paddles, which entered almost perpendicular, and left the water a little inclined towards the stern. The construction of such a boat became to Fitch the highest object of his ambition. He applied to the Continental Congress for aid, representing the immense advantage its success would be to the Western lands lately conquered by the American arms. He petitioned the Legislature of Pennsylvania for money, representing in high wrought figures of imagination the splendid consequences of the project if carried into effect. He portrayed in the private ear of the Western and Virginia members of Congress the achievements in reserve for steam through the agency of his contrivance. He wrote to Franklin in Oct., 1785, affirming the practicability of sea navigation by steam vessels, and every where, and at all times, boldly asserted as a prediction what we observe as facts. But none of his fervid representations produced the money, and he acquired the reputation of an insane man. Finally, by the construction, engraving and sale of a map of the Northwestern Territory, all of which was done with his own hands in the work-shop of his friend, Cobe Scout of Warminster, and the impressions taken in a cider press, he raised about $800 in February, 1787, formed a company of forty shares, and commenced a boat of sixty tons. After innumerable vexations and delays, principally occasioned by the formation of the engine, the boat was put in motion, and made only *three miles* an hour. The machinery was so rough that the expected power of a cylinder of twelve inches was not realized. The company was discouraged, but another rally was effected, the shares doubled, and the improvements commenced. "I was" (says Dr. Thornton) "among the number, (shareholders,) and in less than twelve months we were ready for the experiment."

The day was appointed. A mile was measured on Front street, (now Water street) Philadelphia, and the bounds projected at right angles as exactly as could be to the wharf, where a flag was placed at each end, and also a stop-watch. The boat was ordered under way at dead water, or when the tide was found to be without movement. As the boat passed one flag it was struck, and at the same instant the watches were set off. When the boat reached the other flag it was also struck, and the watches instantly stopped. Every precaution was taken before witnesses, the time was shown to all, and the experiment declared to be fairly made. The boat was proved to go at the rate of *eight miles an hour*, or one mile in seven minutes and a half, upon which the shares were signed over with great satisfaction by the rest of the company. It afterwards made *eighty miles* in one day.*

This was in Oct., 1788, and the boat was called the "*Perseverance*."

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* Lives of Eminent Mechanics, p. 32.

On the 12th of the same month, she ascended the Delaware to Burlington, with thirty passengers, a distance of *twenty* miles, in *three hours and twenty minutes.* She had, as yet, no cabins, but ran as a passenger boat for some time on the Delaware. If Dr. Thornton means by "a day" twelve hours' running time, her speed was *six and two-third* miles per hour. Her trip to Burlington was made at *six and one third* miles an hour. But Mr. Fitch had calculated upon a regular rate of eight miles, and was, therefore, not satisfied with her performances. The success already attained, gave him pleasure, but he looked forward to greater results. He was well aware that along the level roads of the Delaware, where stages could make five or six miles an hour, a passenger boat of *six miles* could never be profitable. It was necessary to exhibit a speed which should astonish the beholder, in order to induce the public to travel upon a craft that had more the appearance of an infernal machine, than of a quiet, comfortable and safe conveyance. He therefore abandoned the company to make new and more enlarged efforts, and the Perseverance was laid up for the winter.

Although no money could be obtained from Congress, the states, or from various corporations addressed on the subject, the legislatures of New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland and Virginia, had granted him valuable but indefinite monopolies for a term of years.

His dissatisfaction with the company arose from repeated interferences on the part of the members, upon whom he was dependent for money, in the construction of the machinery. In the winter of 1788—89, old scores were settled, and in the coming spring, new arrangements were made for a more perfect and enlarged boat. She was completed in the fall, and made an experiment, which was satisfactory. That night she took fire and burned to the water's edge.

In the spring of 1790, the second boat was repaired, a consolidated company formed, and a third steamer constructed during the summer. These were destined to fulfil the conditions of the grant from Virginia, requiring the presence of two working boats within her waters before the expiration of four years. The law expired Nov. 7th, 1790, and the two boats were lying in the Delaware, ready for a movement, when a furious storm arose, and drove one of them upon Petty's Island, where it lay until after the statute expired. Deprived of every hope of relief from the grants of the states, he turned to the new Congress and the patent laws under the constitution. On application to the Congress of the Confederation in 1788, he used the following expressions: "We have overcome every difficulty which can cause doubts to arise, *having done what was never done before.* We have exhibited to the world a vessel going against strong winds and tides, the vessel carrying the engine, the engine propelling the vessel, and all moving together against the current. If we never carry it to any greater degree of perfection, we have, I presume, merited a generous reward."

In the petition of July 2d, 1790, from which we have already quoted, he recapitulates the history of his enterprise, and observes that, "Having at length fully succeeded in his scheme, he trusts he now comes forward not as an imaginary projector."

The year 1791 was principally wasted in securing a patent from the

United States, which bears date Aug. 26th, of that year. This patent is not to be found in the Commissioner's office, having been destroyed by fire, with the public buildings, in 1836. Its terms, therefore, cannot be quoted. But in 1817, a committee of the Legislature of New-York, before whom it was shown, with drawings, models, and testimony, make the following official statement respecting it: "In Fitch's (boat) the cranks of the axle-beam were connected with a frame, from which paddles were suspended, acting in an elliptical line upon the water, while in Fulton's (boat) the axle was attached to vertical wheels, with paddles or buckets permanently fixed in the periphery, and in both the motion of the axis was rotary. The boats built by Livingston and Fulton, were, *in substance*, the invention patented to John Fitch, in 1791, and that Fitch, during the time of his patent, had the exclusive right to use the same in the United States."*

This committee had before them written statements of Dr. Rittenhouse, Andrew Ellicott, John Ewing and Oliver Evans, who certified to the performances of the Perseverance, and other boats on the Delaware. Gen. Bloomfield appeared in person, and stated that he had passed up and down the Delaware as a passenger on the boat, and regarded her as in successful operation.

The patent system was then so loosely executed, that he regarded his parchment from the United States as calculated rather to involve him in useless litigation, than to give him valuable protection. He had been in communication with the Spanish Minister at Philadelphia, and the governor at New-Orleans, respecting a right to the use of the Mississippi.

Mr. Vail, the United States Consul at L'Orient, in France, was desirous to propose the matter to the National Assembly. Although the permission, relative to the Mississippi, was at length granted, Mr. Fitch concluded to visit France, and did so in the year 1793. But the civil disorders of that kingdom prevented the accomplishment of his desires. He withdrew to London, and by working his passage as a sailor, regained America, broken down in body and dejected in mind, and disgusted at the stupidity of a generation who could not, like him, comprehend the immeasurable benefits of the application of steam to water craft. In 1796 he withdrew to his lands, near Bardstown, Kentucky, which he found in the occupation of others. In 1798 he took a fatal poison, and died in the chamber of a tavern, attended by no relative or friend (his landlord excepted) and was buried in the corner of the grave-yard, in presence of six or seven persons, without a stone or other monument to mark the spot.

The fulfilment of our design to do justice to this child of misfortune and forgetfulness, would require an examination of the claims of subsequent inventors to works evidently the property of Fitch. Fulton had an eulogist, who, while the earth was still fresh upon his grave, sounded his praises to the world. They are known wherever a steamboat cleaves the water, on every shore which has echoed with the sound of its engine. But Fitch had none. It was even doubtful, until within about two years, whether his grave could be identified. His manuscripts were sealed up in the year 1792, with directions not to be broken until thirty years after his death. He had withdrawn from the scene of his sorrows and triumphs to an obscure village of the remote West. He was in his grave, and his relatives were ignorant of the time, place and manner of his death.

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* New-York Review, vol. 4, No. 7, p. 148.

The first model of his boat, at Warminster, was destroyed or lost. The patent was buried in the archives of the office, until it was consumed by fire. His contemporaries and friends, though retaining a cherished remembrance of his genius and integrity, were scattered throughout the land, advanced in life, or already, like him, in the grave. In 1805 a model, made by him at Bardstown, was burnt in the house where he died. In 1842 the pamphlets and papers, left to one of his executors, the Hon. John Rowan, were likewise consumed by fire. Oblivion, in every form, seems to have settled upon his memory, in a cloud of thick darkness, which we hope is about to be dispersed.

In 1828 the Hon. Robert Wickliffe, then a member of the Senate of Kentucky, who had seen Mr. Fitch while at Bardstown, and knew the important services he had rendered to mankind, proposed a resolution authorising a plain monument to be erected over his mortal remains. It was referred, on the 8th of February, 1828, to a select committee, who made no report, and the project was allowed to remain without further notice until the winter of 1843—4. At the time of Mr. Wickliffe's resolution, the manuscripts at Philadelphia were not opened. Little or nothing material was known of the history of the man whose name it proposed to distinguish. It is not strange that no interest was excited, no action had, and that the shades of forgetfulness were suffered to gather again about his memory. At the last session of the legislature of the state of his adoption, a memorial, embracing an abstract of his inventions, successes, eccentricities and trials, was presented at the last moment of their sitting, reviving the subject of a monumental notice. This will be found on the printed Journals of the House for 1844, p. 588, having received no action for want of time. With Mr. Fitch it was a favorite desire that his bones might be laid on the banks of the Ohio. In a moment of despondency, while pursuing his gigantic undertaking at Philadelphia, he exclaims: "Why these earnest solicitations and excruciating anxieties! why not leave them and retire to rest under the shady-elms, on the fair banks of the Ohio, and there eat my coarse but sweet bread of industry and content, and when I have done, to have my body laid in the soft, warm and loamy soil of the banks, my name inscribed on a neighboring poplar, that future generations, when traversing the mighty waters of the West, may find my grassy turf!" And still later, he breaks forth in the same poetical strain, referring to the position of his grave, and hoping that it may be made on the shores of some of the waters of the West, in order that the "song of the boatman might enliven the stillness of his resting place, and the music of the steam-engine soothe his troubled spirit."

In case the efforts to secure monumental honors for his remains by the act of public bodies, shall fail, there is a band of surviving friends, who are prepared to do it, and have resolved that it shall be done.

The rubbish of forty-five years had almost obliterated his grave, and the tide of time has carried the principal part of his contemporaries into the same eternity with himself. But a few still live, and with them the sense of his merits, the remembrance of his achievements, and the bitter sorrows that were his rewards, are not obliterated or even dimmed by age. It is expected that before many years have passed, justice, though tardy in its arrival, will be at last rendered, and his genius will receive the homage, as his misfortunes will, the commiseration of his countrymen—that those who navigate the noble rivers of the West, will from the decks of numberless boats, yet witness, upon some commanding headland of the Ohio, a neat, white and conspicuous column, which shall mark the repose of Fitch.

Delay, instead of operating as a bar to the performance of such a duty—instead of precluding, by limitation, the obligations of justice, gives new force to those obligations. Other men have been rewarded for similar inventions by the enjoyment of universal celebrity—Fitch by universal neglect. In the Congress of the United States, and in public orations; in state legislatures, and even foreign countries, how often and how *justly and honorably* has the name of Fulton been pronounced! His is but one of a crowd of inventors, whose names rush upon the memory when the steam-engine or the steamboat engages our thoughts. There are those of Savary and Newcomen, of Watt and Bolton, the elder and the younger Stevens, of Rumsey and Franklin, Stanhope and Livingston—these are all familiar; but where is the name of Fitch? While the friends of Rumsey, Evans and Fulton have offered encomiums upon these gifted mechanics, those public benefactors; while the legislature of the nation has been moved in their behalf as meritorious citizens and inventors, and the treasury of the nation has responded her gratitude in a substantial form—where is the orator, the voice, or the petition, that has presented the claims of Fitch?

The reality of these claims will appear in a stronger light by comparing more closely the nature of his machine and that of his successors. Practical minds will at once inquire why his boat was not brought into immediate use. This will be made at first view the test, the sole test of the value of his invention. We are now tolerably well informed of what *that invention was:* we have a knowledge of what in it was *borrowed,* and what was *originated.* I have endeavored to present fairly *what had been done* up to April, 1785. From every thing which was invented by him at that time, Bernoulli, Rumsey and Franklin were as far as possible—Raynal and Jouffroy were almost as far. Before Watt, the engine was but poorly adapted to *any* machinery—Watt had never adapted it to a boat. Twenty years after, Watt and Fulton undertook the work, and found it a most difficult and doubtful application.

This *adaptation* was effected by Fitch, in 1788. A quarter of a century afterwards, the workshops of America could not furnish an engine of any kind. Fitch made one, and put it in operation in 1787—8.

In 1807 a steamboat was run from New-York to Albany, at the rate of *four and seven-tenths* miles an hour, and returned at the rate of *five miles* an hour. In 1788 a steamboat ran upon the Delaware *eighty miles* in "a day," and *twenty* miles in *three hours and ten minutes,* which was built by John Fitch. Both had an engine and crank motion, and both had shafts or axles. At the end of the shafts of one were paddles; at the end of the other, wheels. Both the wheels and the paddles projected in an equally cumbrous manner over the sides of the boat. The Perseverance, with 30 passengers, made *six and one-third* miles an hour; the Clermont made *four and seven-tenths.* How circumstances and times alter cases! The trade and transportation of the Delaware, in 1788, were limited, and the roads along her banks were level. The Perseverance and her consorts paid no dividends.

The trade and travel of the Hudson in 1807 was important, and the journey along her shores rough, tedious and forbidding. The Clermont, at a speed almost one-third less, procured freight and passengers, and by the test of profit and loss, has been declared successful; more successful than her predecessor, upon the Delaware. Had they started together over the same course, at the same time, the Perseverance, gaining one mile and six-tenths an hour, would have reached Albany fifty-two miles in advance. Her performances on the Delaware had been equal to that, nineteen years before, and on trial in the harbor, had shown a speed of three miles greater than the Clermont. But the Perseverance is forgotten, and the day of her triumph also: while mankind every where, within the scope of civilization, remember the month of August, 1807.

The North River boats continued to run, pay dividends, and improve during the life of the monopoly of Livingston and Fulton; but at its expiration their steamers had but just acquired the speed of eight miles an hour. Stevens put them up at once to thirteen or thirteen and a half, being a gain of five miles an hour, or a greater increase than the actual speed of the first class of boats. In the contemplation of Fitch something equal to, or exceeding eight miles, was necessary to success. In practice upon the Hudson, five miles secured an immortal name. Was it for the invention? Mr. Fulton, a modest and just man, never claimed it. Was it for the engine? This was the work of Watt. Was it for the crank, the shaft, or the axle? The New-York committee say, they were all found in Mr. Fitch's patent of 1791, and Noah Webster, Esq., says, that in 1793, Mr. Vail presented all of Mr. Fitch's papers to Fulton for examination.* Was it for wheels? They had been seen and attached to boats more than half a century, and had been tried repeatedly within a quarter of a century.† Was it for speed? In this important particular, there was a retrograde of one-third. For convenience or strength? These were subsequent improvements. For perceiving, in advance of his day, the advantages to commerce, and especially the commerce of western rivers? This subject had been presented to the public in every form, to an incredulous Congress, to city authorities, and state legislatures, by Mr. Fitch, during ten long years of importunity and disregard. Was it for predicting a future navigation of the sea, by "packets and armed vessels?" Fitch had recorded that prophecy in his letter to Franklin, Oct. 12, 1785,* and to Rittenhouse, in 1792.†

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* Graham's Magazine, July, 1843, p. 108.

† The Philadelphia inventor had tried them, and found that a given power acting upon paddles, produced more velocity. The paddles fulfilled the conditions *now obtained by an enlargement* of the wheel. It saved the expenditure of power, which was lost by forcing the buckets flat-wise into the water, and lifting them from it. It is remarkable that the angle of Fitch's paddles with the water, as they were dropped into it, corresponded very nearly with that of the buckets of a *thirty foot wheel.* The principle of his conclusions upon this angle are thus verified to be more correct than those of the early wheel-boat builders. His results and the results of the best constructed modern boats were the same; they produced the greatest velocity with the least power. The difference in construction is not a change of the principle. The wheel is more firm, and less liable, therefore, to injury, but the force of the resisting surface is the same applied in all small wheels, at a less advantageous angle. The first boats of the Hudson had wheels of twelve to sixteen feet in diameter.

As an inventor, Mr. Fulton's genius shone most conspicuously, not in ordinary steamboats, but in submarine and marine warfare,—a display measurably forgotten by his countrymen. It was upon torpedoes and submerged batteries, upon steam frigates and cable cutters, that his mechanical talents and his science exerted itself with most splendid effect.

Circumstances beyond the control of man, rendered the other branch of his study the most conspicuous. But why did not Fitch and his company occupy the Hudson? He was not compelled by the New-York statute of 1788, to put boats in motion within that state, as he was in Virginia. His efforts and hopes were first directed to the latter state, and we have seen how sadly they were frustrated, by the loss of one of two boats, required by law, at the last moment, when they could not be replaced. We have seen how, at this hour of trial, his resources, his health, encouragement, and future prospects all failed at once. For all valuable purposes, this was the death of Fitch. His prolonged existence was of no further benefit to his invention—it was a continuous scene of grief, so intense, that it cannot be recited, without exciting sympathy in every breast.

COLTON ON THE RIGHTS OF LABOR.

Mr. Colton, the author of the "*Life and Times of Henry Clay*," the "*Junius Tracts*," &c., is publishing a work entitled "*The Rights of Labor*," from which he has given us permssion to incorporate with this number of the National Magazine, the following section of the 12th chapter, on Cotton. It is proper to remark, that this chapter is devoted to a review of the report of Mr. Walker, Secretary of the Treasury, and that the section now inserted is but one of the points of that review.

The position of Cotton as one of the great interests of the country.

"The cotton planting interest," says the Secretary, "is the great exporting interest, and suffers from the tariff in the double capacity of consumer and exporter. Cotton is the great basis of our foreign exchange, furnishing most of the means to purchase imports, and supply the revenue. It is thus the source of two thirds of the revenue, and of our foreign freight and commerce, upholding our commercial marine and maritime power. It is also a bond of peace with foreign nations, constituting a stronger preventive of war than armies or navies, forts or armaments. At present prices, our cotton crop will yield an annual product of $72.000,000, and the manufactured fabric, $504,000,000, furnishing profits abroad to thousands of capitalists, and wages to hundreds of thousands of the working classes, all of whom would be deeply injured by any disturbance, growing out of a war, to the direct and adequate supply of the raw material. If our manufacturers consume 400,000 bales, it would cost them $12,000,000, whilst selling the manufactured fabric for $84,000,000; and they should be the last to unite in imposing heavy taxes on that great interest, which supplies them with the raw material, out of which they realize such large profits."

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* Life and Writings of Franklin, vol. 10.

† Lives of Eminent Mechanics, p. 33.

The most impressive feature of the above passage, from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, is the sympathy and concern which he seems to manifest for British capitalists and laborers, as contrasted with his feelings towards American capitalists and laborers. To the former he is more than courteous; to the latter somewhat severely censorious. It is not a little remarkable, that he should be able so clearly to see the dependance of these "hundreds of thousands" of British "working classes" on their position, in connexion with their employers, and that he should so feelingly deprecate "any disturbance" of that position, by which they might be "deeply injured;" and yet not be able to see the importance of not disturbing the same position of American laborers. The Secretary seems to have great satisfaction in contemplating the growing wealth of British capitalists, and is apparently ready to vindicate their utmost prerogative. The slightest exposure of the British "working classes" to injury, very sensibly affects him. This does not appear to be the charity that begins at home; but that which roams abroad for beneficiaries.

The Secretary is right, that there is a great American staple, worth annually $72,000,000, more or less. It will probably increase; but there are also other great staples, other great interests; and the aggregate of the whole leaves even cotton in the shade. It appears by senate documents, No. 340, 2d session, 27th Congress, that the annual products of the United States of all kinds, amounted, in 1840, to $2,000,000,000. Now they are probably worth $2,500,000,000. The consideration, therefore, due to this $72,000,000, as an American interest, for the attention and care of the government, as a fraction of the general interest of $2,500,000,000, on republican principles of equality, can be easily cyphered out by the terms above given. Can it rightfully claim any thing more ? It is by no means the largest, even of the agricultural interests of the country. The Hon. Mr. Cameron, of Pennsylvania, stated in the Senate, that the hay crop was worth twice as much as the cotton crop. The Hon. Edward Everett, when minister to the court of London, is reported to have said at an agricultural meeting, held at Derby, in 1843, Earl Spencer in the chair, that although the commerce between Great Britain and the United States is twice as great as between England and any other country, yet the whole of the products, passing to and fro, was not worth so much as the oats and beans raised in Great Britain, as proved by their agricultural statistics; and that the entire value of the products employing British navigation, all the world over, was not equal to the grass grown in Great Britain. Mr. Cameron also stated, that the wheat crop was worth full 40 per cent. more than that of cotton; that oats were worth about two thirds as much; potatoes more than half as much; and so on. The amount of Indian corn produced in 1840, was 377,000,000 of bushels—doubtless half a million, or more, in 1846. This is beyond cotton. Neat cattle, in 1840, numbered 15,000,000, which, at $10 a head, would be $150,000,000. Swine were 26,000,000, at $4 each, $104,000,000. Horses and mules were estimated at $170,000,000, and the trifling article of poultry at $9,000,000. All these have increased in six years. The products of the dairy are probably worth more than cotton. The annual products of manufacture have been stated at $300,000,000. Boots and shoes, in the state of Massachusetts alone, mount up to $14,000,000. There are many interests in the Union, great in the amount of their products, and of great importance to those concerned in them. Every interest of every man, has a claim to respect and protection.

But the Secretary ascribes some very pretending *political* attributes to the cotton interests, for which he seems to think it merits the special care of the government. "Cotton is the great basis of our foreign exchanges, furnishing most of the means to purchase imports, and supply the revenue. It is thus the source of two-thirds of the revenue, and of our foreign freight and commerce, upholding our commercial marine and maritime power. It is also a bond of peace with foreign nations, constituting a stronger preventive of war than armies or navies, forts or armaments."

It cannot be denied that this is a high pretension, an extraordinary claim, put forward on the basis of eminent political considerations; and these, apparently, are some of the reasons why the Secretary thinks that all other interests of the country should give way to that of cotton, and that the public policy should be shaped for this. Believing in these facts, as he has stated them, his position and course, as a public officer, may be easily explained. How could he do otherwise?

But if, after all it shall appear, that the position of this interest of $72,000,000, so far as its claims to protection are concerned, is purely a commercial one; that it is an interest of so many dollars, and no more, in the pockets of the growers of cotton; that so far as it has any political importance, it is so much additional commercial value to itself, and therefore can only be regarded as a basis of commercial speculation—and a very strong one it is;—then, what becomes of these high and superior claims set up for it by the Secretary?

It appears by one expression in the passage now under consideration, viz., "cotton suffers from the tariff in the double capacity of consumer and exporter," that the Secretary holds to the old "forty bale theory," which has been so long and so thoroughly exploded, that no one has dared, for years, to propound it, under the original terms. But here, manifestly, is its ghost again. It is this assumption on which the Secretary has erected the entire scheme of his anti-tariff policy. It was this, partly, though not alone, that led him to ascribe such paramount importance, political and other, to the cotton interest.

Mr. Clay treated this theory, at the time it was first propounded in 1832, as follows:—"It is alleged that the import duty is equivalent to an export duty, and falls on cotton. The framers of our constitution, by granting the power to Congress to lay imposts, and prohibiting that of laying an export duty, manifested that they did not regard them as equivalent. Nor does the common sense of mankind. An export duty fastens upon, and incorporates itself with, the article on which it is laid. But an import duty on a foreign article, leaves the exporter of the domestic article free,—first, to import specie; secondly, goods which are free from the protecting duty; or thirdly, such goods as, being chargeable with the protecting duty, he can sell at home."

Again: "The case has been put in debate, and again and again in conversation, of the South Carolina planter, who exports one hundred bales of cotton to Liverpool, exchanges them for one hundred bales of merchandise, and when he brings them home, being compelled to leave at the custom house forty bales in the form of duties. The argument is founded on the *assumption* that a duty of 40 per centum amounts to a *subtraction* of forty from the one hundred bales of merchandise. The first answer to it is, that it supposes a case of *barter*, which never occurs. If it be replied, that it nevertheless occurs in the operations of commerce, the answer would be, that, since the export of Carolina cotton is chiefly made by New-York or foreign merchants, the loss stated, if it really occurred, would fall upon them, and not upon the planters.

"But, to test the correctness of the hypothetical case, let us suppose, that the duty, instead of 40 per centum, should be 150, which is asserted to be the duty in some cases. Then, the planter would not only lose the whole hundred bales of merchandise, which he had gotten for his hundred bales of cotton, but he would have to purchase, with other means, an additional fifty bales, in order to enable him to pay the duty accruing on the proceeds of the cotton! Another answer is, that, if the producer of cotton in America exchanged against English fabrics, pays the duty, the producer of the fabrics also pays it, and then it is twice paid! Such must be the consequence, unless the principle is true on one side of the Atlantic, and false on the other! The true answer is, that the exporter of an article, if he invests his proceeds in a foreign market, takes care to make the investment in such merchandise as, when brought home, he can sell with a fair profit."

Where a doctrine or theory—for this is nothing but a theory—is proved *absurd*, as above, that is enough. No reasoning can stand before a plain, palpable absurdity like this. The cotton planter usually sells his cotton, out and out, to a New-York broker, or to a merchant somewhere, at the market price, puts the money in his pocket, *and there it is*. But Mr. Walker's theory supposes *it is not there!* Or, that, by some unaccountable process, 40 per cent. of it is afterwards abstracted! If Mr. Walker, having the money for his cotton once in his own desk, lets a part of it go, it must be his own fault. There is no such thing as *barter* in these transactions. The exporter of cotton pays the cotton grower cash, and if he imports merchandise with its proceeds, instead of cash, it is because he expects more cash in the end, by profits on his imports, duties or no duties.

But admitting the truth and validity of the "forty bale theory," or of what Mr. Walker calls "cotton suffering in the double capacity of consumer and exporter by the tariff"—it would be hard to *believe* it

—but *admitting* it, it has been demonstrated in another part of this work, that protective duties, in this country, are not taxes, in the operation of the system, to any party or person; that protected articles are generally cheaper—in the aggregate always cheaper; and that the system relieves the people from a heavy burden of foreign taxation. Then where is this "suffering," this loss, to be found? It has vanished; it is turned into a positive gain, in all cases, and with all parties in the country—producers, consumers, buyers, sellers, exporters, and importers. And thus the whole of Mr. Walker's theory falls to the ground.

It was on the basis of this theory that nullification rose in 1832—disturbed the repose, and menaced the integrity of the Union. The South Carolinians were made to believe that they were taxed millions a year, "in the double capacity of consumers and exporters." Mr. Clay, in his reply to General Hayne, in February, 1832, proved very satisfactorily, that, on their own principle, their tax, as a state, could not exceed $333,000, which was only about one-third of their fair proportion of the public burden, when the revenue from customs was twenty-five millions. But even this burden is removed by the proof, that protective duties are not taxes.

As to the political importance of the cotton interest, stated by Mr. Walker, in maintaining peace, whatever of truth there is in it—and there is doubtless a good deal—nevertheless, it all redounds to the commercial advantage of that interest, rendering it always more secure, more available, more productive. As to the credit claimed for the cotton interest, in affording the basis for two-thirds of the public revenue, the fact is not apparent. England must have the cotton, and the planter is glad to sell it. *These* are facts. But why does the exporter of the cotton bring back merchandise? Because the people want it, and because he can double his profits by the operation. It is the wants of the people, then, that constitute the basis of the public revenue, and not cotton. If it should be said, the cotton pays for the merchandise, to the extent specified, this fact is not inconsistent with another contingent one, to wit, that, in the absence of cotton, something else would be found to pay for it. As to the aid of cotton in providing a maratime force, by employing a commercial marine, that, too, rests on a similar foundation to the other pretension, and if it should be granted, would it not be fair to balance the account, and bring the cotton interest in debt to the country, by charging back upon it five or six millions a year for the expense of a navy to protect it, on its passage to market?

What now remains of the Secretary's glorification of cotton?

No doubt it is a great blessing to itself. It is also a blessing to mankind, as food is. Nor is it intended to disparage its fair relative importance, as one of the great interests, though not the greatest, of the Union. But it can hardly be allowed as entitled to the claim that every other interest of the country should make obeisance to that, crouch to it, be its slave, be sacrificed for its advantage.

NINETEENTH GREAT ANNUAL FAIR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE.

It gives us great pleasure to insert the following General Circular, of the Nineteenth Great Annual Fair of the American Institute; not more from a desire to do all in our power to aid in the good work in which they are engaged, than from a thorough conviction of the vast benefit conferred upon the country by these schools for the promotion of the useful arts.

More particularly would we invite public attention to this exhibition, at this time, when a blow has been struck at our home pursuits by the General Government, which threatens the deepest injury to the mechanic arts.

If we are to be a free and an independent nation, we must rally around those by whose ingenuity, skill and industry the raw materials with which our country is blessed, are converted and fashioned into all articles of domestic use and comfort.

Dependent colonies may look to a mother country for clothing and domestic utensils, but a great nation should rely upon its own resources. Since the United States broke the shackles by which her people were bound down almost to the single pursuit of agriculture, a population of three millions of souls has increased to eighteen millions! The flag that then represented thirteen weak and depressed colonies, now triumphantly floats on the breezes of every clime, as the proud emblem of a great empire, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean! Shall such a nation, inhabited by a people of indomitable energy and enterprise, be cramped in its pursuits and restricted in its internal resources, because the monarchies of the Old World cheat their subjects of the reward due to their labor!

The bare idea of such degradation is preposterous and humiliating in the extreme. It is by fostering and protecting the arts of life, that we have become what we are, and wo be to those who would stop our car of triumph. It will not, it cannot be arrested.

Unlike the governments of the Old World, where power is in the hands of the few, and the masses can therefore be defrauded of their honest earnings—thanks to a heroic ancestry, the free people of the United States are the arbiters of their own destiny; and though for a moment their public servants may abuse the power with which they are entrusted, the corrective is at hand—even *now*, before the late iniquitous tariff has gone into operation, the public mind is thoughtfully exercised. The result of the new measures cannot be known for some time—but their evil effects will be seen and felt ere many months; and the friends of American industry will have a proud satisfaction in the consciousness that they at least have done their duty.

Among those who have done much practically to aid the good cause, the American Institute stands pre-eminent, for they have annually, for the last eighteen years, called together the friends of the home industry at these Fairs, given premiums to merit, and encouragement to all concerned. A more praiseworthy mode of manifesting their interest and zeal in this great cause of the country they could not adopt, and we are proud to bear witness to its admirably beneficial results.

Let therefore one and all, who have the love of their country, and the pride of its progress at heart, unite and do all in their power to aid in making this Nineteenth Annual Fair, if possible, superior to any that have been heretofore held. Let it show forth in its strength and beauty the results of American ingenuity, skill and industry, and put to shame the anti-national policy that would deprive labor of its reward, and reduce the well educated American mechanic to a level with the ignorant and depressed subjects of European despotism.

GENERAL CIRCULAR OF THE NINETEENTH GREAT ANNUAL FAIR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE, OF THE CITY OF NEW-YORK.

The Exhibition will open at Niblo's Garden, October, 5th, 1846.

Thursday, Friday and Saturday of the previous week, assigned for receiving Manufactures, specimens of the Arts, &c.

Exhibition of pure blood and other Cattle.

Horses, Sheep, Swine, Poultry, &c.; Ploughing and Spading Matches; Horticultural Show, and National Convention of Farmers, Gardeners and Silk Culturists.

Horticultural Show at Niblo's Garden will be opened to the public on Tuesday, the 6th of October, at 9 o'clock, A. M.

Ploughing and Spading Matches on Friday, 9th October.

Cattle Show corner of Twenty-third street and Fifth Avenue, rear of the Madison Cottage, on Wednesday and Thursday, 14th and 15th of October.

CIRCULAR.

The Managers appointed to conduct the NINETEENTH ANNUAL FAIR, have, with the aid of the Board of Agriculture, made such progress, as to be able at this time to present to the public the outlines of the leading arrangements for this National Celebration.

As circumstances and occasion suggests, other means according with the general plan will be determined upon to increase the interest and usefulness of the Exhibition, which, with various details, will from time to time be published in the Agricultural and other circulars hereafter to be issued, and in the principal periodicals and newspapers.

PROGRAMME OF THE GENERAL ARRANGEMENTS.

Specimens of all kinds of fabrics of Art, Machines, Models, Inventions, &c., intended for competition, must be delivered, and entered on the books of the Fair, at Niblo's Garden, October 1st, 2d, or 3d, viz., Thursday, Friday or Saturday. The chance for a favourable location will be increased by an early delivery, which should not be later than Friday or Saturday afternoon.

FIRST WEEK OF THE EXHIBITION.

Monday, October 5th.—The fair will open to the public at 12 o'clock, M. Vegetables, Fruits, Flowers, &c., for the Horticultural Room, should be brought early this morning. Fresh supplies of Flowers are desired every day. At 7½ o'clock, P. M., the OPENING ADDRESS will be delivered by the Hon. MAHLON DICKERSON, of New-Jersey, President of the Institute. After which there will be a grand display of Fireworks.

Tuesday, October 6th.—The Horticultural Exhibition opens this morning at 9 o'clock. An Address by a member of the Institute at 12 o'clock, M.

Wednesday, October 7th.—The Steam Engine, with the long range of Machinery, will be in operation this day. At 9 o'clock, P. M., a display of Fireworks.

Thursday, October 8th.—At 3 o'clock, P. M., an Address.

Friday, October 9th.—Ploughing and Spading Matches. An Address in the field.

Saturday, October 10th.—The evening will close with a splendid display of Fireworks.

SECOND WEEK OF THE NINETEENTH ANNUAL FAIR.

Monday, October 12th.—Entries of Cattle and other Live Stock must be made on or before this day, and pedigrees delivered. NATIONAL CONVENTION OF FARMERS, GARDENERS, SILK CULTURISTS AND THEIR FRIENDS, at 11 o'clock, A. M., at the Mechanics' Hall, No. 472 Broadway.

Tuesday, October 13th.—Making lists of Cattle. Agricultural Convention continued.

Wednesday, October 14th.—First day of Cattle Exhibition. They must be on the ground by 9 o'clock, A. M. Agricultural Address at 7½ o'clock, P. M.

Thursday, October 15th.—Second day of Cattle Exhibition. ANNIVERSARY ADDRESS in the Tabernacle at 7½ o'clock, P. M. The New-York Sacred Music Society have, as usual, kindly volunteered their services. Visiters may obtain tickets free of charge at the Clerk's desk.

The Managers desire strongly to impress exhibiters with the necessity of bringing their contributions early, to avoid the crowd and confusion usual on Saturday afternoon and evening, and the delay caused thereby, in well arranging, in season, the articles for opening the Exhibition, which will not be delayed beyond 12 o'clock on Monday, the 5th of October. Again, the Judges meet early the first week, when the examination takes place of articles for competition, after which a re-examination will not be admissible. Further conditions and regulations of the Fair will be posted on the desk and in other parts of the Garden. A label accompanying the articles, with the price and place where sold, would be a convenience to purchasers, and for the interest of the exhibiter.

In no case, whether there are competitors or not, will any article be entitled to premium, if undeserving of particular commendation.

At the last Fair, 34 Gold Medals, 35 Silver Cups, 181 Silver Medals, 255 Diplomas, 170 Dollars in Cash, and 128 volumes of Books, were awarded as premiums. They will be increased at the coming Fair.

The importance of an Annual National Exhibition in so central a situation as New-York, the great mart of trade, where producers of all occupations resort in such multitudes, is obvious. It insures a full display of the most perfect specimens from the fields, the gardens, the factories and workshops of our country; and enables the accurate observer to compare improvements from year to year, and note the progress of our growing Republic, in producing and multiplying the enjoyments of life. The visiters, at a single Anniversary, have exceeded two hundred thousand, representing most of the States in the Union—an assemblage that has no parallel in this country.

The knowledge of improvements obtained by examination, inquiry and conversation, the visiters carry home and scatter in their vicinities, and thus it becomes wide-spread over the country. Many of them are purchasers, and take along with them fabrics and productions of great utility, improved breeds of animals, labor-saving machinery, &c., which are adopted, and soon become general.

The collection of great numbers of inventors and ingenious men, their explanations, intercourse, observations and suggestions, necessarily conduce to numberless new and useful improvements. From such vast collections of highly perfected productions, not less, at the last Fair, than 20,000 different specimens, with crowds of anxious and ardent contributors competing for the prizes, a spirit of competition and emulation has been awakened, the general influence of which has reached almost every city, village and hamlet in our country. It is a fact, there are few places of note which cannot boast of a greater or less number of the testimonials in skill and ingenuity awarded them by the American Institute.

This great jubilee does not fail to attract our most honored and distinguished citizens from distant states, whose praises cheer the meritorious contributors. The praises of illustrious men have always conduced to high and noble exertions. The various public addresses, from men eminent from experience and wisdom, pronounced before immense concourses of people, published and distributed over the land, are calculated to produce the most beneficent effects. The exhibition of articles being purely American, brings into action the noblest feelings of patriotism, and nourishes the pride of National Independence. For eighteen successive years the exhibition has been continued, and triumphantly sustained by the public favor and patronage.

The Managers invoke from exhibiters and visiters the continuance of the same favor and patronage. At great expense they have arranged for Niblo's Garden, chiefly with the view to the accommodation of the manufacturer, the mechanic and artisan. Room will be appropriated for specimens of fabrics from cotton, wool, silk and linen, leather, furs, iron, steel, brass and copper, as well as the precious metals; fabrics of wood in all their manifold forms; paper and books, glass, stone, and earthenware; and the numberless articles compounded from these and other materials, whether useful or ornamental. For the products of household industry and ingenuity, in all their substantial as well as delicate forms, the Managers have relied upon the ladies, and they have never failed, from the opening of the first fair, to furnish their full share of attractions; and much of the success of all the fairs may truly be attributed to their cheering presence and patronage.

To no class of men is our country so much indebted for those rapid improvements, which are the admiration of the world, as to the inventers and perfecters of labor-saving machinery. From the cotton gin, and the skilful application of steam, have proceeded immeasurable power and wealth. The faculty of accomplishing undertakings of this description, forms a marked feature in our national character. But the ill-fated inventor who has conferred millions on his country, and benefited the whole human race, often is unable to command the common comforts of life.

Steam-power has been provided to test all such machinery, make known its particular merits, and enable the inventor at once to realize a portion of the value of the fruits of his ingenuity, and thus prevent the sharper from availing himself of the inventor's poverty to rob him of his rights. New and useful inventions will receive the greatest attention and consideration, and the highest honors of the Institute will be conferred upon them.

The agriculturist will see by a reference to our programme, that a Ploughing and Spading Match, a National Convention of Farmers, Gardeners, and Silk Culturists, a Show of Cattle and other Live Stock, constitute prominent parts of the arrangements of this Fair.

We hope to see the best ploughmen and spadesmen, with their most perfect instruments, contending for their prizes. These exercises in the open field have always ranked among the most exciting and gratifying performances of our Anniversaries.

The rearing of the best live stock is essential to our country's prosperity. Enterprising public spirited gentlemen have already provided our country with some of the best bloods of the Old World. They have only to be nurtured, multiplied and scattered over our country. The coming Fair will present to our fellow citizens the best opportunity for obtaining good breeds.

The National Convention of Farmers, Gardeners and Silk Culturists is called in conformity to the recommendations of former Conventions, held in this city during the Fairs.

Farmers, Gardeners, Silk Culturists, and the friends of Agriculture generally throughout the United States, are respectfully invited, without further notice, to meet in the city of New-York, on the 12th day of October next, the seventh day of the Fair, at 11 o'clock, A. M., prepared to present all such information from their respective localities, in their appropriate branches of industry, as they may deem most useful, and with such plans for the future improvement of the Agriculture of our country, as will best advance its progress and independence.

Washington's Home Department, so warmly recommended by former Conventions, will again be brought under the consideration of the members of this Convention.

ADONIRAM CHANDLER,
JAMES VAN NORDEN,
HEMAN W. CHILDS,
GEORGE ENDICOTT,
WILLIAM HALL,
JAMES R. SMITH,
MARTIN E. THOMPSON,
ISAAC FRYER,
ROBERT LOVETT,
THOMAS B. STILLMAN,
C. C. HAVEN,
THOMAS W. HARVEY,
GEORGE GIFFORD,
JOSEPH TORREY,
JAMES R. WALTERS,
S. S. BOWMAN,
H. C. WESTERVELT,
R. H. McCURDY,
JOHN CLOWES,
GEORGE H. BRADFORD,
CHARLES DENNISON,
F. P. SCHOALS,
GEORGE BACON,
GEORGE C. DE KAY,
GEORGE C. MANN,
T. B. WAKEMAN, *Ex-officio*
Managers of the 19th Annual Fair.

New-York, July 23, 1846.

N. B. Editors of Newspapers, Journals, &c., will oblige the Institute by giving publicity to this Circular.

DIRECT TAXES.

We have, for some time, thought we saw the ulterior idea of direct taxation lurking under the views occasionally put forth by those who have advocated a reduction of duties on foreign imports; but we had not thought they were prepared openly to avow their purpose until now. Now we observe the party journals—the Globe, of this city, the Democratic Review, and the hybridous Journal of Commerce, no doubt ordered so to do by the party in power, all coming out, simultaneously feeling the public pulse, to see how a resort to direct taxes will be received by the people.

The Journal of Commerce holds the following language: "We state the truth about a rising favor for direct taxation, and give it as our opinion, that further agitation of the tariff question will be likely to result in further reductions; and these papers meet the matter with slang, and tell us we threaten." And it then does go on to threaten excises and stamps, instead of a tariff on imports, and also an income tax. "A tax, say, on all incomes greater than five hundred dollars; a tax on gold watches, coaches, notes of hand, &c., would such a plan (asks the hybrid) displease the masses and upset the Democracy? The Globe, of this city, says:

> "It is now no uncommon opinion among a large number of our people, that a system of direct taxation will have to be adopted ultimately in this country, and we believe throughout the world. But few who believe in the truth of this doctrine attempt to conceal their opinions. An expression of their opinions no longer injures, but rather strengthens their popularity with the people. There is a disposition among Democrats to give the new tariff a fair trial, so that capital invested under it may have a fair chance *to prepare for a change, still further reducing the duties*; for, rest assured, there will be no change but one of still further reduction. *A system of direct taxation would benefit ninety-nine men out of every hundred.* Therefore, we are willing to appeal to the interests of the people in settling this question."

The Democratic Review, in a long, labored article, under the head of the Tariff—its history and influence, makes the following remarks:

> "We have seen that protection from the *incident* has been distorted into the *principle*, and that an advance of duties, from 5 to 40 per cent. average, has produced no other result than to give strength to the manufacturers in seeking to enforce farther special legis-

lation for their benefit. The evil has become so great as to lead to the consideration, whether it should not be counteracted by an entire abandonment of indirect taxes, and an abolition of the custom-house. By such a course, a patronage of some 11,000 offices will be taken out of the hands of the federal government, and a source of vast corruption dried up. The wants of the federal government may be twenty-two millions per annum, besides the land revenues. This could easily be raised by a tax apportioned among the states. As, for instance, the mill tax of New-York yielded $655,067, a two mill tax would give at least $1,200,000, which would be collected without any increase of machinery by the comptroller of New-York, with the state taxes, and placed to the credit of the federal treasury. The collection would not cost a dollar, and the support of the federal government would fall upon property instead of upon labor. The economy and feasibility of such a system is superior to that of customs. By the removal of the latter, many evils would be remedied, particularly that of every few years arraying the manufacturers against the government, and making the distress of work-people the means of warfare. The experience of Great Britain in the protective policy, has been, that wealth under it gradually accumulated in the hands of the few; and the means of the many to consume goods, charged with indirect taxes, had become so far impaired as to affect permanently the revenue. Indirect taxes had reached a point at which they diminished the revenue. The new government of 1842 reversed the whole system, by imposing direct taxes upon the *property* of the country, and removing the indirect taxes which fell mostly on *labor*. In this country experience has already developed the fact, that protection is a source of most baneful instability in legislation; that it arrays continually those who seek special privileges against the government; and that the great *desideratum* of uniform and permanent laws cannot be attained, as long as indirect taxes open the door to the award of bounties.

These three trumpets of the present Administration are thus, as we have said, blowing a blast, with a view to feel the public on the subject of *direct taxation*, so that it becomes the duty of the friends of American interests, to examine somewhat into this new plan of domiciliary visitation, which it is proposed to substitute for the system of revenue by duties on foreign imports.

The first thing that presents itself for consideration is, what would be the situation of the United States, if all import duties were abolished. No one can for a moment doubt, that it would carry us back to the colonial state existing prior to the revolution. Nay! it would reduce us to a much worse condition—for British colonies have many privileges which we should not possess. The ships of British colonies are British ships, and are protected in many privileges by the Navigation Act. The colonies can import into England almost all articles at a much less duty than is paid by other countries. But what would entirely break us down, would be, that not only every manufacture technically, so called, but every mechanic art, would cease in this country; and we should have hats, boots and shoes, ready made clothing, and every other article of domestic use, sent to us from Europe.

The 300,000,000 of dollars annually created by manufactures, now admitted by the Secretary of the Treasury, and the amount shown to be now greater than this, by the census of 1840, would be at once cut off; and nothing would be left to us as a pursuit but agriculture. Producing at this time more grain than can find a market even at an unremunerating price, all the other capital of the country must lie idle, and all the industrious population in the useful arts must be driven to the forests of the West, there to drag out a miserable existence in a state of semi-barbarism.

But need we pursue this subject further? Is there any fear that the free people of the United States will ever submit to such a national degradation? We will not believe it!

This tone is probably adopted in the party trumpets, with a view to alarm the friends of American industry. It is doubtless considered important to threaten them, that if they attempt any modification in their favor, by an alteration of the tariff of 1846, they may, in the language of the Globe, "rest assured there will be no change but one of still further reduction."

What kind of language is this to hold, to the free people of the United States? As if *they* had nothing to say on a subject so vital to their interests. Has it come to this? What could an eastern Satrap say stronger than this to his subjects or slaves, who might complain of the severity of his laws? "Cease to agitate me on this subject, or I will make the laws still more severe." Do not talk of the ruin to be suffered under the tariff of 1846, says the Globe, or you may "rest assured there will be no change but one of still further reduction." By whose authority is this assertion made? Is it merely the Editor of the Globe who makes this threat? If so, it is ridiculous in the extreme; and if it is authorized by the servants of the people at Washington, it is not only an insult to the good sense of the country, but it is an assumption of power, ill becoming men calling themselves the advocates of democracy.

The tariff of 1846 will be modified or not, as the people shall direct; they will soon have an opportunity of testing its operation. Congress will commence its session in December, after the law has gone into operation, and before the fourth of March something will be known of its effects. If we are not mistaken in our views of what they will be, they will not redound much to the credit of those, through whose agency the onward march of the country has been arrested. The bare prospect of what its operation may be, has already produced much evil to all the industrious pursuits of the country, and this evil will, we think, go on increasing the longer it is tried. The "Key Stone State," as Pennsylvania is called, will find a much lessened demand for its coal and iron, and has yet to see, what will be the effects of the lessened duties on these her great staples. The State of New-York will also find her industry very much checked.

Thus, when the Experimental Tariff is fairly tested, we shall see, how the people will relish the dictum of the Globe, "that there will be no change but one of still further reduction on our imports, *and a resort to a direct taxation.*"

It is quite *probable*, we think, that our fellow citizens will feel they have a right to have something to say, before the tax-gatherer shall call upon them to disclose the amount of their income, that it may be taxed. This kind of espionage will not, we apprehend, meet with much favor in free America. Even under monarchical institutions, it is considered very odious. Mr. M'Culloch, the great free trade advocate, condemns it. At page 137 of his treatise on taxation, he says, in summing up his views:

"We have thus seen, in the first place, that it is not possible to acquire any accurate information in regard to the magnitude of the incomes enjoyed by some large and important classes; and we have next seen, that though such information were obtained, the sources whence different incomes arise are so various, and so very different in their degree of durability, that all attempts to subject them to a really equal tax must prove utterly abortive. The truth is, that such a tax is a desideratum which is not destined ever to be supplied. After the legislature has done all that can be done to make it equal, it will be most unequal. To impose it only on certain classes of incomes, or to impose it on all incomes, without regard to their origin, is alike subversive of sound principle. Nothing therefore remains, but to reject it, or to resort to it only when money must be had at all hazards. When the ordinary and less exceptionable means of filling the public coffers have been tried and exhausted, and when, as during the late war, Hannibal was knocking at your gates, and national independence must be secured at whatever cost, an unreasoning necessity of this sort is the only satisfactory justification of taxes on property or income."

So far from this being the case with the United States—no measure we could adopt would be so destructive to our *independence*, as to abolish our Custom Houses, and resort to direct taxation of any kind.

But we will not *now* pursue this subject farther, feeling that we have perhaps treated too seriously, a proposition, so at war with every American feeling, that we cannot think any administration will dare to thus insult the common sense of the country.

We are prepared, it is true, to look for many absurdities from those who now hold the reins of power, but we cannot bring ourselves to believe they will try raising an army of tax-gatherers to pry into the secrets of every man's business and occupation, or to pay frequent visits to the independent farmers who would look upon them as they would upon swarms of locusts, coming upon them to eat out their substance.

P. S.—Since writing the above, we find the following, in a letter to a morning paper of this city, from its Washington correspondent:

> "On Monday, the 7th instant, the Jackson Democratic Association was re-organised, for "the diffusion of intelligence and political information." From a knowledge of many of the members, it is but a poor compliment to say they are honest and intelligent. But it appears that certain persons, occupying high positions, and not connected with the organization, have endeavored, stealthily, and perhaps presuming on their ignorance. to make them the endorsers of principles they never avowed, and which, like General Scott's "hasty plate of soup," they are not prepared to swallow. For a full understanding, it must be remarked that, during the last session of Congress, on the call of the Senate, Mr. Walker made a report, exhibiting a list of manufactured articles, on which $54,000,000 are annually paid to the protected classes, by enhancing the price of the domestic articles, and the amount so paid on each article. This was referred to the Committee on Finance, and ordered to be printed, as a good electioneering document.
>
> "A few days ago, a northern paper stated boldly 'the truth about a rising favor for direct taxation;' and another print, professedly and loudly democratic, said: 'A system of direct taxation would benefit ninety-nine men out of every hundred; therefore, we are willing to appeal to the interests of the people in settling this question.' These opinions soon found a response in Washington, if they were not originally sent off as echoes.
>
> "The document, or a portion of it, was reprinted last week, with a very important addition, viz: Two pages, purporting to come from the Executive Committee of the Jackson Democratic Association, recommending, as the only fair mode of taxing all equally direct taxation!
>
> "Five thousand copies were struck off, two thousand of which were sent to Jackson Hall, where the association meet, and three thousand retained in the office of the *Union*. It was supposed that the Democratic Committee would go to work and send them off, asking no questions; and perhaps they would, had it not been for a shrewd member, who, putting on his silver spectacles, started back with amazement at the direct taxation arguments attributed to the association, and which looked to him like so many monsters beheld through a microscope. He called attention to it. The committee were up in arms—there was a flutteration—who had let loose this dreaded beast? The document was that of Mr. Walker, but who tacked on the forged address? Who is the culprit? What right had any one to wilfully apply the names of any members of the Association to sanction direct taxation? 'No, no, sir, we can't send away such trash,' said Seignstack; while Dr. Munding, the German physician remarked, it was a 'tam trick of somepootye,' and Mr. Rives, the chairman of the executive committee, posted off to the *Union* to make inquiry in the premises. But who dared to say the committee recommended 'direct taxation?' Let the name of the guilty be proclaimed! Suffice it—the document was printed by Ritchie and Heiss,

> and if Mr. Walker were not a gentleman, suspicion might attach to him. The committee ordered the document to be suppressed, and it may be permitted to sleep with Mr. Rives's speech, telling the manner in which he was, with Mr. Blair, whistled out of the *Globe*, without trial by jury.
>
> "*Query.*—Was this the kind of document Mr. Ritchie recommended to be proposed, and circulated, to counteract the efforts of the whig executive committee? Some of the democrats put it down for a whig lie—they thought their opponents had played a trick on them, until they looked at the imprint."

Our readers will perceive that this solves the mystery, and shows plainly that we judged rightly in attributing the movement of the Democratic Review and the two newspapers named, to orders issued at Washington, and we think all must agree that it is high time for the *free* people of the United States to be upon the alert. A more bold and daring attempt to break down and destroy the whole industry of the non-planting states, could not be devised.

We are rejoiced to see that a check has been put to the dissemination of these government orders, by the members of the "Jackson Democratic Association," at Washington, which has refused to lend its influence to this anti-American scheme.

We are ourselves well acquainted with many gentlemen, heretofore the firm friends of the present administration, but who are wholly opposed to Mr. Walker's principles, as laid down in his report, at the late session of Congress; and we shall be much disappointed, if this shall not, ere long, be made as fully manifest in many other parts of the Union, as it has already been, by the following resolutions, passed at the "Dauphin County, Pennsylvania, Democratic Delegate Convention," held last week in that State, and published in an extra from the Harrisburg (democratic) Argus—a paper devoted to that party, and considered its principal organ in that state:

> *Resolved*, That a tariff for the protection of domestic labor has always been a favorite principle with the democratic party—that it was practised by Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Jackson, and Van Buren, and that we as democrats will sustain it.
>
> *Resolved*, That under the tariff of '42 the people of this state were prosperous, and her resources were developed in an extraordinary degree—labor was abundant, and wages high, and no man was idle who wished employment; a few years more of its continuance would have placed our manufactories on a solid basis, and have made the state prosperous beyond competition. It paid the national debt, and filled the treasury with funds, while it augmented the prosperity of every quarter of the Union.
>
> *Resolved*, That the repeal of the tariff of 1842, after it had, in the last Presidential election, received the sanction of every portion of the democracy—after the party had fought and triumphed under its banners—*is a fraud upon the party*. and meets our decided disapproval.
>
> *Resolved*, That the tariff of 1846 does not protect our labor; that it does encourage the pauper labor of Europe; that if continued, it will bring down the price of labor, and will not produce funds enough to sustain the government; that it is an experiment emanating from the nullification of South Carolina, which is calculated to bring our mechanics and workmen to the level of the southern slaves, and to bring a system of direct taxes upon the government of the Union.
>
> *Resolved*, That the country cannot return to its prosperity until the *British tariff* of 1846 is repealed.
>
> *Resolved*, That we approve of the conduct of our senators and representatives in Congress who opposed this obnoxious bill. They were faithful to their trust, and the democracy will sustain them.
>
> *Resolved*, That Vice President Dallas has forfeited the confidence of the democracy of Pennsylvania by giving his casting vote in favor of the McKay bill. That he continues to insult his own state by travelling abroad to receive honors from the south in payment of that vote.
>
> *Resolved*, That the thanks of the democracy of this state are due to the Hon. John M. Niles, for his able defence of the domestic labor of the country.
>
> *Resolved*, That we have looked with pleasure at the senatorial conduct of our friend and neighbor, Senator Cameron: a true son of Pennsylvania, a democrat in principle and practice—he knows what is right, and has the courage to do it. We are proud of his talents, and will gratefully remember his services.

THE CITY OF PHILADELPHIA

AS IT WAS AND AS IT IS.

It has been the ardent desire of the Editor of this journal to give a good account of this the city of his birth, and with this view he has endeavoured to collect the necessary materials; but there is great difficulty in obtaining correct statistical information.

Still enough is known to approximate towards some idea of the vast improvements which have taken place within the last three quarters of a century. As a commencement and with a view to invite further attention to a subject so very interesting as the progress and growth of a city, which may be said to be unique in many of its characteristics, the Editor has determined to make an attempt. He is well aware that it will be imperfect, but it will at all events be an approximation towards the truth; and he promises hereafter not only to make any corrections which may be transmitted to him, but to use all due dilligence himself in some future number to remedy all deficiencies which may arise from his present imperfect data.

Philadelphia, as is very well known, was founded by William Penn, an eminent member of the Society of Friends (as they style themselves) but called by others, Quakers. This name was originally given them in derision. The feeling, however, which prompted this derision, has long since passed away, but the name remains, and has become their established cognomen, throughout Christendom. Their peaceable, quiet and inoffensive habits, their loyalty of character, in a word, their good citizenship, has overcome all prejudices until the name of Quaker, far from being one of reproach, has found favor with their Christian brethren and the public, and is now used simply to denote their particular form of religion, as that of Catholic, Protestant, Presbyterian, Methodist, &c., denote the particular tenets of each.

We introduce this remark, because of a very important bearing in the settlement of Pennsylvania and Philadelphia, caused by the testimony of the Quakers against war, which they believe to be entirely inconsistent with the Christian doctrine. Be this as it may, this peculiar tenet of this sect caused William Penn to attempt his settlement in the then province of Pennsylvania, altogether through peaceable measures, and led to his purchase of the land from the aborigines instead of forcibly dispossessing them. In this he entirely succeeded, and Philadelphia was not only thus purchased of the Indians, but its first settlers were principally of the same peaceable religion with its founder, and this has produced a great influence, and has given it the "appellation" of the city of brotherly love. But it is not our purpose to pursue this part of its history to any further extent than to account for those sedate and quiet habits, which for a long time distinguished its inhabitants, and which to this day have left more or less of their influence.

The city of Philadelphia was first laid out in 1682, by Thomas Holme, the first Surveyor of the province. Shortly after his arrival, the proprietor held a treaty with the Indians, under a very large elm tree in Shackamaxon, (now Kensington) on the banks of the Delaware River, at which certain grants of land were conferred, and the most amicable and satisfactory relations established, between the colonists and their red brethren. This venerable tree was regarded with great reverence as a relic of the olden time, and preserved with great care, as a memorial of the interesting transaction held under its shade; but in 1810 it was unfortunately blown down, to the great regret of the citizens. Determined however, not to be thus deprived of so memorable a relic, writing desks and other small articles were made of its wood, and are preserved with great care by those who are so fortunate as to possess them. A marble monument, with an appropriate inscription, was erected on the spot where this elm tree stood, and thus perpetuates the peaceable and just principles of the great and good man by whom the city was founded.

By the close of 1682, twenty three ships had arrived with emigrants to the new colony, and numbers followed the succeeding year, so that when Penn returned in 1684, the city contained 300 dwellings, and 2,500 inhabitants. The plan of the city is a parallellogram, with streets at convenient distances intersecting each other at right angles, and extending from the Delaware to the Schuylkill River, a distance of about two miles. Thus it is seen, the idea was entertained at its first laying out, that it would become a great city. Dean Prideaux, who died in 1650, in his celebrated work entitled, "The Connexion of the Old and New Testament," after presenting the plan of the ancient city of Babylon, thus speaks of Philadelphia—" Much according to this model hath William Penn the Quaker laid out the ground for his city of Philadelphia in Pennsylvania; and were it all built according to that design, it would be the finest city in America, and not much behind any other in the whole world."

Had he lived till now, and could witness the appearance it presents, he would see that so far from over estimating its future destiny, its illustrious founder, far as he saw into the future, had no idea of a city such as is presented to the admiring gaze of all who visit it. It has burst the bounds within which it was limited, and much the larger portion of it is beyond them.

Truly may it be called the fairest city in all America; for in no other city are there the same number of good dwelling houses in proportion to the population. Nowhere are neatness, simplicity and beauty more studied in the style of the architecture, as well for public as for private accommodation. It might have been expected that the city would increase north and south, but who could have supposed, that it would have crossed the two rivers, as it has, and as Camden and West Philadelphia bear witness.

Our present space will not permit us to enlarge upon the many merits possessed by our native city, in its excellent water, fine markets, and many other particulars. We must hurry on to our statistical details, and leave it for some other occasion, to prove what we have no hesitation in asserting, namely, that in no city of the world are the comforts, nay, the elegancies and luxuries of life more attainable, nor is there anywhere a city in which the mass of the population is as well fed, as well clothed, and as well housed. It is preëminent for its means of education, and its public charities cannot be exceeded.

In 1689 the first public school was founded by the Society of Friends, and placed under the care of George Keith, a native of Aberdeen, in Scotland. The Revolution of 1688 having driven James II. from the throne of England, and William and Mary becoming his successors, Penn, from a supposed adherence to the former, was, in 1693, deprived of his province of Pennsylvania, and Col. Fletcher, governor of New-York, succeeded to the government. But in 1694, it was restored to him, and he was reinstated in his rights and authority.

In October, 1701, the city of Philadelphia received a charter from the proprietor, and he sailed for England. In this year, the duties on imported goods amounted to £8,000 sterling, or about $40,000.

One of the first products cultivated in the province for exportation, appears to have been tobacco, for in 1702, eight vessels were loaded with eighty or ninety hogsheads each, and sailed for England. In 1706, eight hundred hogshead of tobacco, and twenty-five or thirty tons of furs were exported.

In 1707, the consumption of British goods amounted to about £14,000 or £15,000 sterling, or $60,000. In 1718, William Penn died in England, and left all his interests in Pennsylvania to his children.

In 1719, the first weekly gazette, called the American Weekly Mercury, was published in the city, by Andrew Bradford.

In 1727, Benjamin Franklin published "The Pennsylvania Gazette."

In 1730, a great fire occurred, and consumed a number of stores and dwellings, the loss being estimated at $25,000, upon which two fire engines were imported from England, and in 1738, Franklin formed the first fire company.

In 1740, the city contained between two and three thousand houses, and 15,000 inhabitants. In 1755, fifth street was regarded as the western extremity of the city. In 1726, the first stage to New-York was established, through Trenton, going through in three days. In 1760, the Pennsylvania Hospital was founded, and Dr. Franklin wrote an inscription, which was engraved on its corner stone. In 1761, '62, the streets were first paved in the middle, and this was accomplished by a lottery. A second line of stages was now established to New-York twice a week, going through in three days; and in the same year, a line of vessels and wagons, once a week, was established to Baltimore. In 1766, a third line of stages was established to New-York, called the "flying machine," going through in two days.

In 1707, the British General Howe was in possession of the city—many of the inhabitants had left it; there were 3,508 houses, of which 587 were untenanted. There were 287 stores, and 21,767 inhabitants, exclusive of the British army.

Of course, no rapid improvement took place in Philadelphia during the revolutionary war, and, indeed, till the wars incident to the French revotion.

We have searched in vain for the statistics of the commerce to which that gave rise—neither Seybert, Pitkin, or any other statistical writer known to us, has any separate account of it, as relates to Philadelphia.

The memory of the writer furnishes him with the fact that it was very great; we have, as we have said, no certain data to guide us, but have no doubt the exports of Philadelphia, during this period, exceeded those of any city in the Union, and for many years her trade to India and China was preëminent.

The following is an extract from "A view of the United States of America," by Tench Coxe:

It has been already affirmed, that the business of ship-building is in a course of extraordinary prosperity in the United States. From the books of the inspector-general of American commerce, under the British government, it appears that there were built in Pennsylvania, in the year 1769, no more than 1649 tons of new vessels; in the year 1770, 2354 tons; and in the year 1771, only 1307 tons. The return of new vessels, built in the state of Pennsylvania, during the year 1793, though a grievous epidemic malady was introduced, in that term, into its only sea-port, exhibits the number of 8,145 tons. These vessels were generally built of the southern live oak and cedar, and were consequently of the first class in value and excellence. This great increase of so capital a vehicle of commerce is an evidence as well of the growth of trade, as of ship-building. It is, however, proper to observe, that the measurement of 1771 was much less accurate than that of 1793. The medium of the actual tonnage of three former years, mentioned above, was, perhaps, 2,380 tons.

But there is a stronger proof of the growth of trade in the port of Philadelphia, and in the state of Pennsylvania. This results from the astonishing increase of exports. The aggregate value of all the commodities shipped from Philadelphia to foreign countries, during one year, ending on the 30th of September, 1792, was $3,820,646

The aggregate value of the like exports from Philadelphia, during one year, ending on the 30th of September, 1793, was 6,958,736

The aggregate value of the like exports from Philadelphia, during one *half* of a year, ending on the 31st of March, 1794, was 3,533,397

It is to be remembered also, that the epidemic malady, already mentioned, and the embargo in the last spring, interrupted the commerce of Philadelphia during a term of nearly five months, at the close of 1793, and the beginning of 1794.

The exports of the state of Pennsylvania, during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1793, were more than one-foruth (*i. e.* nearly seven twenty-sixth parts) of the exports of the whole of the United States. The transportation of merchandise, and domestic manufactures, coast-wise, and by land, was also very great.

Certain it is that the trade of Philadelphia continued greatly to increase, and the city experienced a rapid progress.

The general peace of Europe, in 1815, put an end to this profitable trade, and each country was necessitated to look to its own resources, and thus the State of Pennsylvania commenced to look to her mineral riches, in which she excels all other states in the Union, and from which she has derived an amount of wealth, that has sustained the city of Philadelphia, and increased its prosperity beyond the calculations of the most sanguine. The mines of iron and coal of the state are inexhaustible, and her water privileges, her internal navigation, eminently qualify her for manufactures of every kind.

Our limited space will not permit us at this time to go into a history of her progress, under the system pursued, which has produced the results, we shall presently show, in the wealth and resources of the city of Philadelphia, taken from the United States Census of 1840, with some few more particular details, collected by a gentleman connected with this work, and which it is intended to continue, for publication, in some future numbers.

In estimating the statement taken from the census, our readers should bear in mind that it was taken in 1840, at a time when the Compromise Act had reduced the duties on foreign imports so low, that little, if any profit resulted to capitalists engaged in manufactures.

They were, however, kept in operation, from the belief that a proper tariff would soon be provided for the protection of the general industry. Nor was this reasonable expectation disappointed—the tariff law of 1842 came to their relief, and gave a stimulus to every branch of the internal industry of the nation, the beneficial effects of which were nowhere more experienced than in the State of Pennsylvania, and consequently in her beautiful and prosperous Atlantic city.

We think it by no means an over estimate, that the manufactures of Philadelphia have increased at least twenty per cent. since 1840.

But alas! for Pennsylvania, and her two cities, Pittsburg and Philadelphia! The late tariff of 1846 has struck a blow at their prosperity, the effects of which we will not anticipate. Nor will the evil to be produced be limited to the cities, towns and villages of the state. They will penetrate more or less every hamlet, and the farmers will feel them, in the loss of a home market more valuable to them ten times over, than all the foreign markets to which they have access.

We need not urge this, for in Pennsylvania the value of protection to the American laborer is well known. We would, however, call their attention to the ruinous principles laid down in the late report of the Secretary of the Treasury, which is *designed*, we use the word advisedly, it is *designed* to break down and destroy the industry of the non-planting states; and the sooner the citizens of these states assemble together in their respective states and neighbourhoods, and enter their solemn protests against these principles—the better—unless they are willing to be reduced to a condition worse than that of a European Colony.

We speak of the *design* of the Secretary of the Treasury, with an increased force, since we have seen the idea put forth, that it is intended to resort to an abolition of all Custom Houses, and have recourse to DIRECT TAXATION.

But we have already exceeded the limits we had prescribed to this article, which is written as introductory to the statistical tables which follow; and again reverting to them, we cannot too strongly express our regret at our inability to make them more perfect.

We have ascertained, through the gentleman connected with this journal already referred to, that there are SEVEN HUNDRED STEAM ENGINES daily at work in the various manufacturing establishments consuming the coal, and fashioning into all kinds of utensils and fabrics, the iron, the cotton, the wool, the leather, the lead, and all other raw materials with which our land abounds.

In 1840 the population per census was 228,691. Of which the City *proper* had 93,665. The adjoining districts of the Northern Liberties, Kensington, Spring Garden, Southwark and Moyamensing, numbering 135,026. The remaining part of the county, 29,346 inhabitants; making the total of the whole county, 258,037.

But, we must close our remarks, and ask the attention of our readers to our statistics.

STATISTICS OF THE CITY AND COUNTY OF PHILADELPHIA,

ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1840.

186	* Commercial and 63 Commission houses, engaged in foreign trade with a capital of	$2,119,501
2078	Retail dry goods, and other stores, with a capital of	17,385,993
60	Lumber yards, with a capital of	1,232,000
3	Furnaces and 1 Forge, employed 25 persons, and a capital of	314,050
10	Persons manufactured Granite and Marble to the amount of $4,600, with a capital of	1,300
1084	Persons manufactured Machinery to the amount of	217,445
13	Persons manufactured 500 small Arms	
215	Persons manufactured the precious metals to the amount of	2,651,510
156	Persons manufactured various metals to the amount of	876,060
405	Persons produced granite and marble to the amount of	386,733
588	Persons produced bricks and lime to the amount of.	278,894
16	Fulling mills and 29 Woollen Factories, employed 1156 persons, producing to the amount of $964,450, with a capital of	578,600
45	Cotton Factories, with 40,862 spindles, and 32 dyeing and printing works, employed 2,903 persons, producing to the amount of $3,157,119, with a capital of	1,923,600
32	Men and 15 women or children produced 1,912 lbs. of reeled silk, valued at $12,560 with a capital of	76,600
100	Persons manufactured flax to the amount of $59,100 with a capital of	51,000
	Mixed Manufactures employed 2,880 persons, producing to the amount of $857,820, with a capital of	1,559,488
390	Persons manufactured Tobacco to the amount of 312,600 with a capital of	158,900
584	Persons produced hats and caps to the amount of $313,620, and straw bonnets to the amount of $72,700, with a capital of	152,700
70	Tanneries, employing 279 persons, produced 48,300 sides of sole leather and 43,050 of upper leather, with a capital of	128,000
271	Other manufactories of leather, as saddleries, &c., manufactured to the amount of $1,504,034, with a capital of	475,210
152	Persons produced 4,181,845 pounds of soap, 1,367,200 pounds of tallow candles, and 500 pounds of wax or spermaceti candles, with a capital of	254,300

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* This must be a mistake, as it would make the average capital less than $10,000 each, and it must be more than twice that sum.

11	Distilleries produced 505,032 gallons of distilled spirits, and 19 breweries 11,345,920 gallons of beer, the whole employing 181 persons and a capital of	418,600
368	Persons manufactured paints and drugs to the amount of $1,823,600, and turpentine and varnish to the amount of $3,200, with a capital of	1,865,630
1	Glass house and 1 glass cutting works employed 166 persons, and produced to the amount of $70,000, with a capital of	23,500
7	Potteries, employed 39 persons, produced to the amount of $46,000, with a capital of	24,600
12	Sugar refineries produced $890,000, chocolate factories $6,000, and confectionaries $158,300, the whole employing 134 persons and a capital of	228,300
10	Paper mills produced 97,250, and other manufactories of paper as a material $59,500, employing 180 persons, and a capital of	50,750
20	Rope walks, employed 151 persons, producing cordage to the amount of $129,800, with a capital of.	87,050
97	Persons manufactured musical instruments to the amount of $27,000, with a capital of	32,500
491	Persons manufactured carriages and wagons to the amount of $129,800, with a capital of	127,670
17	Flouring mills, produced 113,810 barrels of flour, and 13 grist mills, 13 saw mills, and 1 oil mill, employing 103 persons, and produced to the amount of $654,068, with a capital of	242,576
	Vessels were built to the amount of	467,480
736	Persons manufactured furniture to the amount of $547,900, with a capital of	396,700
47	Printing offices, 13 binderies, 8 daily, 17 weekly, and 7 semi-weekly or tri-weekly newspapers, and 26 periodicals, employed 925 persons, with a capital of	263,000
927	Brick or stone and 138 wooden houses were built in the last year, by 2317 persons, and cost	3,009,633
	The total amount of capital employed in manufactures was	11,587,668

Cotton and Woollen Establishments in Philadelphia.

Names of owners or Establishments.	No. Establishments.	Spindles.	Looms.	Sets of Cards.	Pounds of Wool used annually.	Pounds of Cotton used annually.	Yds. of Cloth made or printed annually.	Pounds of Yarn made annually.	Description of Goods.	Gross value of Goods made ann'y.	No. of Hands employed.	Horse-power of Steam Machinery.	Tons of Coal consumed.	Names of Agents.
Fairmount Cotton Factory......	1	3700	108	..	....	200,000	1,050,000	....	Printing Cloths.	$52,500	110	23	610	J. L. Hughes, Proprietor.
Joseph Fleming..................	1	1750	52	..	....	158,400	420,000	....	....	75,600	170	25	400	Managed by Owner.
Robert Beath....................	1	....	150	..	*62,000	93,000	620,000	....	Cotton & woollen goods	160,000	170	10	250	do
Coaquanock Factory............	1	....	74	6	200,000	....	400,000	....	Woollen	150,000	100	20	....	do
Nathaniel Gordon...............	1	....	100	..	130,000	65,000	....	....	Cotton and woollen	80,000	153	....	....	do
Franklin Mills..................	1	2156	126	..	100,000	125,000	....	....	Pantaloon stuffs	250,000	230	50	1000	J. H. Dickson, Proprietor.
William Divine..................	2	3000	82	24	150,000	52,000	360,000	....	Kentucky Jeans	....	135	35	1560	Managed by Owner.
George Malthouse...............	1	....	65	..	150,000	10,000	....	....	Carpets and Flannels	120,000	100	40	500	do
Franklin Factory...............	1	3200	82	..	....	140,000	....	....	Pilot-cloths, &c.	54,600	98	30	610	do
Pullinger & Roberts...........	1	....	......	..	....	200,000	....	....	Wadding, &c.	20,000	15	20	225	do
Wyoming Factory..............	1	just	started	..	....	60,000	....	50,000	Yarn	10,000	15	75	810	J. R. & T. B. Flanagin, Prop'rs.
Globe Mills......................	1	8000	60	..	....	500,000	216,000	450,000	Shirting and Yarn	$104,580	269	50	1500	Craig, Holmes & Co. "
Joseph Garside.................	1	2000	24	10	60,000	120.000	150,000	30,000	Cloth and Yarn	81,900	75	30	450	Managed by Owner.
Messrs. Burtis, Keen & Rushton.	1	....	......	..	....	250,000	....	....	Yarn	50,000	90	15	620	do
Fairm't Print works & Cot'n Fac.	1	....	110	..	....	150,000	....	....	Cloth and printing	52,000	80	50	....	do
Jones, Hopper & Co............	1	....	......	..	....	....	6,720,000	....	Printed goods	100,000	100	80	1200	do
W. & D. Watt..................	1	2000	84	19	75,000	150,000	....	....	Woollen and cotton	90,000	130	40	600	do
David Milne & Son.............	1	....	250	..	....	....	1,500,000	....	do	180,000	350	....	....	do
Michael McMacken..............	1	....	180	..	....	....	750,000	....	....	75,000	300	....	....	do
Greer & Norris..................	1	....	150	..	30,000	60,000	450,000	....	do	78,000	160	....	....	do
John Scott.......................	1	....	......	..	40,000	....	....	....	Carpets	26,000	25	20	700	do
J. & J. Dearie..................	1	8000	330	..	....	400,000	3,000,000	....	Pilot-cloths	150,000	200	60	1000	do
J. & J. Dearie..................	1	....	......	10	248,000	....	....	....	Woolens	200,000	250	35	1000	do

NOTE.—There are many other woollen and cotton establishments in Philadelphia and its vicinity which are not yet received, but which shall be inserted in another number.

* Lbs. Yarn used annually.

Iron-Works, Machine-Shops, &c. in Philadelphia.

Names of Owners or Establishments.	Furnaces.		Tons of Iron made anually.	Tons of Castings made or used.	Tons of Boiler and Sheet Iron used.	Tons of brass Castings and copper us'd.	Gross Value of Manufactur'd Goods.	Number of Hands employed.	Horse-Power of Steam Machinery.	Quantity of Coal consumed.	Agents' Names.
	Puddling.	Heating.									
*Fairmount Iron Works	4	3	2080	....	....	....	$250,000	80	144	4500	Smith, Thomas & Ogden, Proprietors.
James Rowland & Co.	2	3	3620	run	double	handed	260,000	40	80	3000	Managed by Owners.
†Thomas Hunt	....	....	2000	....	....	....	190,000	66	150	5000	do
Joseph H. Amer	....	....	....	420	....	....	60,000	60	25	500	do
Neill, Matthews & Co.	....	....	....	360	80	2	60.000	80	13	200	do
‡Norris & Brothers	....	....	....	400	130	120	450,000	325	45	1200	do
M. W. Baldwin	....	....	....	450	126	64	300,000	400	33	1600	do
Merrick & Towne	....	....	....	....	200	11	130,000	200	25	700	do
Rogers, McPherson & Co.	....	....	....	300	....	....	20,000	30	10	....	do
A. L. Knight & Co.	....	....	....	....	....	....	14,000	19	5	....	do
Dyottville Glass Works	....	....	....	....	....	....	75,000	90	....	400	H. Y. Seybert, Prop'r.

* There are four more furnaces in course of erection by this company, and also another mill; and in addition to the iron above mentioned as made, they annually roll about 3,000 tons manufactured elsewhere.

† Going into operation for rail-road iron, and expect to be able to turn out twelve tons per day.

‡ This house has also an establishment at Vienna, in Germany.

☞ There are several other large establishments for making Iron, Machinery, Chemicals, Oil, &c., which, when received, shall be introduced in another table.

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

The arrival of the Boston Steamer has placed in our possession the leading foreign periodicals for the month of September, and we renew our usual glance at the European World of Literature, Science and the Fine Arts.

SCIENTIFIC.

The Edinburgh Philosophical Journal, contains an interesting account from the pen of Professor Wartmann, of two extraordinary meteors which were seen in April last, at the village of Paudex, on the Lake of Geneva. The first was a double iris, which was followed by its dispersion, and the appearance of a brilliant column of the brightest colors formed over the lake, appearing to penetrate to its very bottom. It was of violet color on the side of the sun, rose in a dome shape nine or ten degrees, and then branched out into two distinct arcs, leaving between them a dark spherical angle. The professor asks, if there was a second illuminating point placed at the same height as the sun, or a resplendant nebulous band?

On the 30th May a vertical luminous band of deep red appeared in the west, with sides exactly parallel, immediately after sun-set. Behold, said an enthusiastic observer, the pillar of fire that shone by night on the camp of the Israelites!

We perceive a call in this journal for some essay on the measurement of height, by the means of the temperature of boiling water. We have to remark on this, that the subject has received attention in this country, and Lieut., now Colonel Fremont, practised the system with great success, on his return from the Rocky Mountains. Having unfortunately broken his barometer, he ascertained the height of the mountains he passed, entirely by the means alluded to.

It is alleged by Sir J. W. F. Herschel, that there is now a remarkable diminution in the apparent brightness of Beta in the lesser Bear since 1840 and 1841. It is now classed among the variable stars.

The manufacture of optical glasses is said to demand new attention. Various propositions to improve their homogeneousness are made. The last one is that of Mr. Nasmyth, to carry the heat of the furnace to the highest pitch, to reduce it slowly, and then to cut the metal into parallel slices.

A fossil resin has been found near Eu, in the department of the Lower Seine.

Late geological researches have induced the belief, that the various limestones, like the corals, consist mainly of animal remains.

Mr. Nickels, of York Street, Lambeth, has invented a new piano. It has two sounding boards, two sets of strings, and one set or two sets of keys. The hammers are brought back to their places, by heliacal springs or India rubber. The wire strings are covered with India rubber, gutta percha (which we have previously noticed in this journal) and cat gut, and several strings are combined into one. Pedals are used to obtain deep bass notes. The September number of the London Repertory of Patent Inventions contains a full explanation of the piano, accompanied with drawings.

A new apparatus for hatching eggs, has been invented, by which the natural process is more closely imitated. The artificial heat is applied to the upper part of the egg.

Mr. Highton has invented a Magnetic Telegraph, where the signals instead of being given by deflecting needles, are communicated by strips of metallic leaf. No plan has yet come up to that of Professor Morse, for economy, certainty and simplicity.

Some valuable improvements have been made in the manufacture of Caoutchouc and gutta percha, by Mr. Hancock. Those persons who wish to learn the secret of preparation now so much the subject of controversy in this country, will find it developed in the September number of the Repertory of Inventions, pages 164, 174. Mr. Hancock claims to have made the following improvements; the combination of orpiment and other sulphurets with gutta percha, making it hard or soft, pliable or spongy, plating it *with metal*, making bands for machinery, and cards for carding wool, the teeth being set in gutta percha and its compounds.

The comparative value and importance of the Mercantile Marine of France and England, are attracting the attention of the French papers.

In 1841 the coasting trade of England, calling two movements of each vessel a trip, amounted to 11,318,000 tons, the passages to 275,000, the crews to 800,000 men.

In the same year, that of France consisted of 3,128,802 tons conveyed by 79,483 passages, and 434,896 men. We do not know how accurate is this calculation. We find it in the *Presse.*

Experiments have been made by order of the British admiralty, as to the amount of resistance offered by iron ships to the force of cannon balls. The Ruby, iron steamer, was experimented on, and it was found that the shot went through both sides of the vessel, carrying away whole plates of iron. It is thought by the London Times, that no more iron steamers will be built in England.

Letter boxes, with interior inclined planes, standing in opposite directions, are coming into use in the English post office, and are said to be perfectly secure against the efforts of abstracting thieves.

A trilateral, and what we would also call a three lobed rail, has been invented, the flanges resembling the upper edge. It resembles the letter Y turned upside down, (⅄) and its advantages are said to consist in its being better secured in its chair, and allowing wheels with deeper flanges. We imagine that the *ne plus ultra* of rails has been invented by Mr. Imlay, of this city. Two thousand two hundred feet of cast iron rails have been laid down, under his direction, on the Harlem railway, near 27th street. The flanges, the upper edge, of the shape of the T rail, and the lower rib or bearing, are all cast together. The rail is secured to a longitudinal sill, by bolts passing through it and the joints. It is cheap, permanent and solid.

It is very singular that this idea has not been acted on before, since, for years past, the frogs and turn outs have been chiefly made of cast iron, and they have never broken, and have worn out the wrought iron bars with which they are connected. This application of Mr. Imlay's must effect a revolution in the railway business, since his rails can be cast at any ordinary furnace, and be made in any part of the country where there is iron. We venture to assert, that the cost of railways on this plan will be reduced one-third, *possibly* more.

A new electric lamp has been invented in England, which promises well.

The Mechanics' Magazine, for September, contains an article from the Moniteur Industriel, on the steam-engines of France. It is too elaborate for our purpose, and would require the use of a number of tables. We may, however, briefly state a few of the facts it comprises.

1. *Heating and driving engines.*—
1843, the number was 6,350 in use.
1845, do do 6,937 do.

2. *Steam-engines, high and low pressure.*—
In 1843, the number was 3,369.
In 1845 do do 3,645.

These are computed to perform the work of 961,380 men.

On the French railways, there were, in 1844, 292 locomotive engines, of which 124 were of foreign construction.

3. *Marine engines.*—In 1844, the following was the condition of the French steam marine, as illustrated by the number of marine engines:

Steamboats, 238; for passengers, 81; goods, 2; goods and passengers, 100; tow boats, 44; to tow and carry passengers, 1; to tow and for goods, 6; to tow, carry goods and passengers, 4.

Number of engines, (being more than that of the boats) 382, called 12,789 horse-power; low pressure, 254; high, 28. Average consumption of coal per hour, for low pressure engines, 12,606 lbs.; for high, 12,232 lbs.

A patent elastic tire wheel has been invented in England, and a carriage thus fitted up, has been travelling hundreds of miles without injury. There is no noise in its motion. The tire consists of an elastic tabular ring encased in leather. It has excited much attention.

The bulb of the Dahlia is said to be good food.

The 16th meeting of the British Association was to have taken place at Southampton, on the 10th of September. Among the distinguished foreigners, who promised to be in attendance, were M. Dumas, Professor Schönbein, Elie De Beaumont, Oersted, Nilson, Retzins, Middendorf, Mattencci, and the celebrated Struve.

We notice the death of Dr. Bostock, an eminent physiologist and physician, and a contributor of valuable medical papers to the Cyclopedias.

The potato disease has brought out a large amount of investigation. One of the most elaborate, yet practical essays on the subject, is from the pen of Mr. Fromberg, in the Quarterly Journal of Agriculture.

We find auxiliary steam power is yet insisted on as important to the navy and commercial marine of England. A steamer, the Amphion, we believe, has had a screw of 14 feet added to her, and much is expected from the experiment.

If we had space, we should be pleased to give some of the latest calculations and opinions, with regard to atmospheric railways. We find many drawings and plans set forth in the scientific journals; but we see no reason to change our opinions, previously expressed, on this subject.

The expense, the breakage, the complication of machinery, and many practical disadvantages, must prevent its rivalling the simple rail, on which a direct moving power can act.

We believe, however, we shall yet see many great improvements, both in railways and locomotive engines. With double lines of rails, good engines, and a proper apparatus for keeping the cars on the track, we shall begin to feel that we are in the midst of great improvements, and hurrying to great events. The present insecurity of life on railways, no greater, perhaps, after all, in proportion to the numbers carried, than with other modes of conveyance, retards somewhat the public acquiescence in their general adoption; but the time will come, that railway travelling will be more secure than any other.

We find the following curious statement in Chambers' Journal:

Burning of water.—It was once remarked by a celebrated chemist, when speaking of the probable exhaustion of our coal fields, that he had little fear for that event, as long ere then the progress of science would have enabled man to support the combustion of water. Extravagant as this opinion may appear to the unscientific, there is nothing more likely. Water is a compound of oxygen and hydrogen—two gases, without which it would be impossible to eliminate a single phenomenon of combustion. Thus the gas which we burn in our houses, is carburetted hydrogen; that is, a compound of carbon and hydrogen, which, on ignition, gives us light and heat only when in a medium containing oxygen—such as the atmosphere. Here, then, hydrogen and oxygen play most important parts; and could we resolve water into its elements, which it is quite possible to do, all that is necessary to produce heat and light is a little carbon. But we are not left to speculate on this matter; the thing has been so far done by M. Jobard; and gas made from water, possessing double the illuminating properties of ordinary coal gas, has been used both in France and in our own country. M. Jobard obtains his hydrogen gas by the decomposition of steam in vertical retorts filled with incandescent coke, and unites this gas, *at the moment of formation*, with hyper-carburetted gas, produced by the distillation of any hydro-carburet—as oil, tar, naphthaline, and other products at present rejected by our ordinary gas-works. It is of no moment whence his hydro-carburets are produced; indeed the substances which are rendered useless and injurious to the manufacture of the gas, by the present mode of operating, are precisely those which are the richest in illuminating properties. M. Jobard's process and its details have been submitted, since its invention in 1833, to several commissions of inquiry both in Belgium and France, and the reports of these have been uniformly favorable, both as to its cheapness and the higher illuminating power of the gas so produced. In a recent number of the "Bulletin du Musée d'Industrie," the inventor gives a full account of his process, which is about to become public property; and mentions that it has been used in a manufactory near St. Etienne, in Dijon and Strasburg, partially in Lyons and Paris, and by private individuals in Dublin and London. He modestly concludes his paper by observing, that he will not be accused of exaggeration, when he states, "that there is some value in a process, the principle of which is to decompose water, a substance of no value, by means of coke; which is of very little value, as under this process one pound of oil, which costs a halfpenny, will supply a burner giving a light equal to ten candles during twenty hours.

M. Jobard's is certainly a discovery of great interest, and though not the complete combustion of water predicted by Sir Humphrey Davy, is at all events, as every one must admit, an important step in the right direction.

LITERARY.

Mrs. Romer, an adventurous lady of talent, has published an interesting work, on the Temples and Tombs of Egypt, Nubia and Palestine.

Mrs. Trollope announces "Travel and Travellers."

Mr. James's new work is called Heidelberg.

Dickens' new work, in parts, is called Dealings with the firm of Dombey & Son, wholesale, retail, and for exportation.

The first volume of Humboldt's Cosmos is completed in its English dress, under the superintendence of Col. Sabine.

Albert Smith has written a story, called the Struggles and Adventures of Christopher Tadpole.

Beckman's History of Inventions, has been re-published, with large additions.

The Countess of Blessington publishes this month, a new novel called Lionel Deerhurst.

The literary magazines for the month, are quite interesting. Fraser has a number of excellent tales and essays.

The new monthly contains also much pleasant reading, and an interesting article on the poet Campbell.

The last Edinburgh Review contains a masterly article on the language and structure of the statutes, which should be reprinted in a separate form, and laid upon the tables of our legislators and delegates to constitutional conventions. It discusses the mechanics of law making, and shows to what parties the legislative draftsman should make himself intelligible; to the people, who derive from the article or statute the rule of their conduct, the legislator whose will he expresses, the judge who is to decide whether the law has been obeyed. The criticisms of the writer are sound, and his facts entertaining and impressive.

A neat and pleasant work on Bordeaux and its wines, has been written by Mr. Cocks.

The Debater, a new theory of the art of speaking, by Mr. Rowton, has been published. Its point is, that boys should be trained to debate, rather than declaim.

The Rev. Francis Carey has published an account of the early French poets. The eras of French poetry appear to be divided as follows:

From the time of Henry 1st, to Phillippe de Valois.

From the latter, to Francis 1st.

From the latter, to Henry 4th.

The fourth, and last era, extends from Henry to Louis 14th.

Daniel Wakefield, an eminent English counsellor, is dead. He was the son of the celebrated Priscilla Wakefield, a name dear to young people, and to the poor also, for whom she invented the celebrated system of Saving's Banks.

Mr. Wakefield wrote many valuable treatises, and was particularly distinguished as a lawyer in the famous cause of Atwood.

On the whole, the literary news of the month is pleasing, and we presume we shall soon see republications in great numbers of the leading works announced. We had nearly forgotten to notice that Lady Morgan is republishing her early works, with prefaces and notes, and it is stated, that their popularity continues undiminished. The Wild Irish Girl has gone through seven editions. It is said her ladyship retains much of her youthful spirit as a writer, but that her latter life, in the circles of fashion and eminence, have cooled a little of that generous ardor which once filled her heart and directed her pen. But the pictures she has drawn of her countrymen and countrywomen, must endure while Ireland continues; and in no country have they been more relished than in the United States.

FINE ARTS.

The king of Bavaria has given Von Kleuze, a celebrated architect, orders for the erection of some magnificent public buildings. They are intended to be the glories of the age.

A copy of David's picture of Pius the 7th, has been ordered by the new Pope. We may here remark, that this functionary is astonishing the world by his goodness, his sagacity, his generosity, his energy, and his love of the fine arts.

Although the painters of France appear to be distinguishing themselves, yet, it is said, they are discouraged by the "meanness of the civil list, and the minister of the interior;" and many will emigrate to this country.

Sir Walter Scott's monument was inaugurated at Edinburgh, on the 16th of August. Its cost was about $80,000.

An attempt is making, in London, to prevent artists copying from the life!

The Baron Verstoelk's gallery of paintings at the Hague, has been purchased by James Lloyd, Esq., the banker, and removed to England. A friend, who resided at the Hague, and was familiar with the gallery, assures us it is a treasure.

A new sketching easel has been invented. It is exceedingly simple and useful: and we here would remark, that if our mechanics and designers would examine the foreign journals, which reach this country, they would constantly find something new and excellent, which they could turn to a good account.

The antiquities of France are now exciting great attention among her scholars.

A new opera, by the Prince Poniatowski, is to be published.

A third opera house, in Paris, under the direction of Adolph Adam, is to be erected.

The dance is beginning to have a new era. Since the introduction of the picturesque waltz and Polkas of the continent, we perceive many efforts of the pencil are making, to illustrate the true position and carriage of the body when in motion.

We have only to add, that the fine arts have not lost their votaries during the last month, but are still pursued with unabated eagerness.

MONTHLY LIST OF PATENTS.

Issued from the 21st of August to the 20th of September, 1846, *viz:*

To Charles Pooly, of Charlton upon Medlock, England, for improvement in Carding Engines. Patented 22d August, 1846.

To Peter Moulton, of New Rochelle, N. Y., for improvement in Netting Machines. Patented 22d August, 1846.

To Hiram S. Doolittle, of Kortright, N. Y., for improvement in Horse Rakes. Patented 22d August, 1846.

To Albert D. Bishop, of Brooklyn, N. Y., for improvement in Boom Derricks. Patented 22d August, 1846.

To John A. Roebling, of Pittsburgh, Pa., for improvement in Anchoring Suspension Chains, for Bridges. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To David G. Stafford, of Syracuse, N. Y., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To Anthony Smith, of Cumberland Valley, Pa., for improvement in Breaking and Scraping Hides. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To William Blount and John Cammett, of Osterville, Mass., for improvement in Cutting and removing Ice. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To Robert S. Newall, of Gateshead upon Tyne, England, for improvement in Metallic Ropes. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To Samuel Swett, Jr., of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Spark Arresters. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To George W. Fulton, of Brazoria, Texas, for improvement in Propelling vessels. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To Adolph F. Ahrens, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Scarificators. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To Daniel Woodbury, of Weathersfield, Vt., for improvement in the Horse Power. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To Loftis Wood, of New York city, for an improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To John P. Hayes, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Cooking Ranges. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To Arad Woodworth, 3d, of Worcester, Mass., for improvement in Machinery for planing Blind Slats. Patented 26th August, 1846.

To Loftis Wood, of New-York city, for improvement in Stoves. Patented 28th August, 1846.

To Isaac Jaques, of Elizabethtown, N. J. for improvement in Tailors' Shears. Patented 28th August, 1846.

To Charles Carlisle and Edwin Estabrook, of Norwich, Vt., for improvement in dressing Mill Stones. Patented 28th August, 1846.

To William Dysert, of Gettysburgh, Pa., for improvement in Cultivators. Patented 28th August, 1846.

To William Howe, of Springfield, Mass., for improvement in Truss Bridges. Patented 28th August, 1846.

To Andrew H. Teeple, of New York city, for improvement in Machinery for punching Metallic sheathing. Patented 28th August, 1846.

To Major H. Fisher, of Bridgewater, Mass., for improvement in File cutting machinery. (Assigned to Joseph A. Hyde.) Patented 28th August, 1846.

To John B. Beers, of Rochester, N. Y., for improvement in preventing conception. Patented 28th August, 1846.

To Samuel Wilt, of Hagerstown, Md., for improvement in the Plough Clevis. Patented 3d September, 1846.

To John R. Remington, of Lowndes County, Ala., for improvement in Stump Extractors. Patented 3d September, 1846.

To Oliver S. Hartshorn, Henry M. Payson and Aaron Ring, of Portland, Maine, for improvement in Combined Stoves. (Assigned by A.

Ring to Hartshorn & Payson.) Patented 3d September, 1846.

To David Chappel, of Sheldon, Vt., for improvement in Ox Yokes. Patented 3d September, 1846.

To Alexander M. Wilson, of New-York city, for improvement in Mowing Machines. Patented 3d September, 1846.

To James S. Gwynne, of Pittsburgh, Pa., for improvement in separating Oleic and Stearic acids. Patented 3d September, 1846.

To Clark Jacobs, of Brooklyn, N. Y., for improvement in Machines for hulling and pearling Rice. Patented 3d September, 1846.

To James Jones, of Rochester, N. Y., for improvement in Window Sash fasteners. Patented 3d September, 1846.

To Thomas W. Harvey, of N. Y. city, for improvement in Machinery for heading Screw Blanks. Patented 3d September, 1846.

To Horace Merrell, of Wheatland, N. Y., for improvement in Setting Saw Logs. Patented 3d September, 1846.

To William C. Bussey, of Rockgrove, Ill., for improvement in Machines for Ditching and Embanking. Patented 3d September, 1846.

To Thomas L. Fortune, of Liberty, Mo., for improvement in Hemp Brakes. Patented 3d Sept., 1846.

To William R. Acton, of Richmond, Va., for improvement in Tailors' measures. Patented 5th September, 1846.

To Mylo Knapp, of Springwater, N. Y., for improvement in the mode of attaching horses to wagons. Patented 5th September, 1846.

To John H. B. Latrobe, of Baltimore. Md., for improvement in Stoves, Patented 5th September, 1846,

To John and Cyrus Krauser, of Reading, Pa., for improvement in Combined ploughs. Patented 5th September, 1846.

To John F. Rodgers, of Troy, N. Y., for improvement in Rail Road Trucks. Patented 5th September, 1846.

To George Catchphole, of Geneva, N. Y., for improvement in Straw Cutters. Patented 5th September, 1846.

To Joseph W. Adams, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Bedstead fastenings, (assigned to Simeon H. Lewis and John C. Clapp.) Patented 10th September, 1846.

To William H. Allen, of Willsburg, Va., and James Slocum, of Brownsville, Pa., for improvement in Cooking Stoves, Patented 10th September, 1846.

To Elias Howe, Jr., of Cambridge, Mass., for improvement in Sewing Machines. Patented 10th September, 1846.

To Samuel Thrailkill, of Lafayette, Ia., for improvement in Ditching Machines. Patented 10th September, 1846.

To Augustus Hamann, of Washington, D. C., for improvement in Spark arresters. Patented 10th September, 1846.

To Ezekiel Cutter and Stephen Blanchard, of Cincinnati, O., for improvement in Artificial Mill Stones. Patented 10th September, 1846.

To Augustus C. Allen, of Houston, Texas, for improvement in Curing Meat, &c. Patented 12th September, 1846.

To Jesse Fitzgerald, of New York city, for improvement in Artificial Stones for grinding. Patented 12th September, 1846.

To William H. Marston, of New York city, for improvement in Printing Presses. Patented 12th September, 1846.

To Joshua Gibbs, of Newark, O., for improvement in Platform Balances. Patented 12th September, 1846.

To Edward Bradfield, of Rochester, N. Y., for improvement in Bolting Flour. Patented 15th September, 1846.

To Samuel S. Walley, of Charlestown, Pa., for improvement in Coffer Dams. Patented 15th September, 1846.

To James R. Hobbs, of Huntsville, Ala., for improvement in Blacksmith's forges. Patented 15th September, 1846.

To Thaddeus Fairbanks, of St. Johnsbury, Vt., for improvement in Steel-yards. Patented 15th September, 1846.

To Isaac Edwards, of Paoli, Ia. for improvement in Cultivators. Patented 19th September, 1846.

To William Whitcomb, of Grafton, Vt., for improvement in Bee Hives. Patented 19th September, 1846.

To Oliver Allen, of Norwich, Ct., for improvement in Whaling Lances. Patented 19th September, 1846.

To Daniel Barnum, of New York, for Improvement in Double Cylinder Steam Engines. Patented 19th September, 1846.

To Isaac Mayfield, of Elkton, Ky., for improvement in Straw Cutters. Patented 19th September, 1846.

To Gardner Barton, Jr., and Lysander Button, of Waterford, N. Y., for improvement in Fire Engines. Patented 19th September, 1846.

To George R. Moore, of Philadelphia, Pa., for improvement in Machinery for double seaming. Patented 19th September, 1846.

To Henry Mellish, of Drewsville, N. H., for improvement in Self Setting Tail blocks. Patented 19th September, 1846.

To Thomas Laighton, of Cambridge, Mass., for improvement in Glass furnaces. (Assigned to the New England Glass Company.) Patented 19th September, 1846.

CHANGE OF THE PLACE OF THE EXHIBITION OF THE GREAT FAIR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE.

Owing to the recent entire destruction of Niblo's premises, by fire, deeply regretted by the New-York public, the great fair of the American Institute will be held at Castle Garden, at the same time as set forth in the programme, published in another part of this number.

We ardently hope and trust that this untoward event may not prove in any way injurious to the fair.

Let all parties concerned, as exhibitors, make extraordinary exertions to show that American enterprise is a deeply seated feeling of the mind—an indomitable principle not to be interfered with by accidents which merely change the places of its exhibition. Let them recollect that a war has been declared against the American mechanic, by the tariff of 1846, and that they must come forth in their might, nothing fearing that those who defend American principles will conquer; let the seat in which their prowess is to be shown be where it may. Their ancestors fought as well at Ticonderoga, as they did at Eutaw Springs; and in more modern times, the plains of Chippewa proved American valor as fully as the battle before New-Orleans.

Our soil has ever been defended by the hearts of its sons, and nothing more is necessary but to make a proper appeal to them, and they will rise in their might to rally around the skill, enterprise and industry ot the country.

Let the fair at Castle Garden prove larger and more magnificent than any we have heretofore had, and a patriotic public will flock to the appointed place, as to a castle in which the choicest—the richest treasures, and the proudest emblems of their country's independence are deposited.

PRICES AND QUANTITIES OF COTTON.

Although we have, in several places throughout this work, stated the prices and quantities of cotton at different periods, yet, as we have been furnished with a more systematic account, and one more in detail, from a source in which we entirely confide, fixing the prices at stated periods, we are induced to insert it, since it cannot be too often shown, that the price of cotton is regulated like all other articles, principally by the all-governing principle in mercantile affairs of demand and supply. This we have more fully set forth in our last number—at page 368—by statistics taken from document No. 40, of the last session of Congress.

The present table relates more to the prices of cotton, periodically stated, more fully than we have seen them elsewhere, and on this account, must prove interesting, as a table of permanent reference.

Prices of Cotton in New-York, since 1822, on the 1st of March and 1st of September in each year.

(Compiled from Original Statistics, by Smyth & Shapter, per James Lynch, Cotton and Wool Brokers, 68 Wall-street.)

	March 1.	Sept. 1.
	cts. cts.	cts. cts.
1822		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	16 to 22	11 to 16
Upland and Florida....	15½ " 17¾	11 " 14
Tennessee............	12 " 14	10 " 14
1823		
N. Orleans and Mobile	10 " 15	11½ " 18
Upland and Florida....	10 " 12	12 " 16
Tennessee............	9 " 10½	10½ " 13
1824		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	13 " 17	14 " 17½
Upland and Florida...	13½ " 15	14 " 15
Tennessee............	12 " 13½	13½ " 14½
1825		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	16 " 21	16 " 23
Upland and Florida....	16 " 19	16 " 18
Tennessee............	15 " 17	16 " 18
1826		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	12½ " 16	9½ " 14
Upland and Florida ...	12 " 13	9½ " 11
Tennessee............	....	9½ " 10½
1827		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	9¾ " 12½	10 " 13
Upland and Florida....	9½ " 10½	10 " 11½
Tennessee............	....	10 " 10¼
1828		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	9 " 12½	10 " 13
Upland and Florida....	9 " 10½	9½ " 11½
Tennessee............	9½ " 10	9½ " 10½
1829		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	9½ " 12	8½ " 12
Upland and Florida....	8½ " 10	8 " 10½
Tennessee............	....	8¾ " 9½
1830		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	9½ " 12½	10 " 13½
Upland and Florida....	9 " 10¾	10 " 12½
Tennessee............	....	10 " 11
1831		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	9 " 11½	8 " 12
Upland and Florida....	8½ " 10	7½ " 10
Tennessee............	8½ " 9	8 " 9½
1832		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	8½ to 12¼	9½ to 13
Upland and Florida...	7½ " 10¾	9¼ " 11½
Tennessee............	8 " 9	9¼ " 10¼
1833		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	11 " 13	15½ " 18½
Upland and Florida...	10 " 10¾	14½ " 17
Tennessee............	10 " 11	15 " 15½
1834		
N. Orleans and Mobile	11 " 13	12½ " 16
Upland and Florida....	10 " 10¾	12½ " 15½
Tennessee............	10¼ " 11	12 " 13
1835		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	15 " 18½	18 " 22
Upland and Florida....	15½ " 17	17 " 21
Tennessee*............	15½ " 16	17 " 18
1836		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	17 " 20	14 " 21
Upland and Florida....	15½ " 19	12½ " 20
1837		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	15 " 19	7½ " 13
Upland and Florida....	14½ " 17½	7½ " 12¼
1838		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	8 " 12½	8½ " 13½
Upland and Florida....	8 " 11	8½ " 13
1839		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	13½ " 17½	9½ " 14
Upland and Florida....	13½ " 16½	9½ " 13½
1840		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	7½ " 11	7½ " 11½
Upland and Florida....	7 " 10¼	7½ " 10½
1841		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	9¾ " 12¼	8 " 12½
Upland and Florida....	9½ " 11	7¾ " 10½
No Upland or Florida higher than *fair*.		
1842		
N. Orleans and Mobile.	6¼ " 11	6 " 10½
Do. fair.............	9¼ " 9½	9 " 9¼
Do. good fair........	10 " 10¼	10½

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* Since 1835, Tennessee cotton has been included in the New-Orleans, and may be quoted at the lowest New-Orleans prices.

Prices of Cotton in New-York—continued.

	March 1.		Sept. 1.	
1842	cts.	cts.	cts	cts.
Upland and Florida....	5¾ to	9½	5¾ to	9
Do. fair..............	8½ "	9	8¼ "	8½
Do. good fair.........	9½ "	9¾		
1843				
N. Orleans and Mobile.	5 "	8	6 "	11
Do. fair..............	6¾ "	7	8¼ "	8½
Do. good fair.........	7¾ "	8	8¾ "	9½
Upland and Florida...	4¾ "	7½	6 "	8⅜
Do. fair..............	6⅝ "	6¾	7¾ "	8
Do. good fair and fine	7 "	7½	8¼ "	8⅜
1844				
N. Orleans and Mobile.	8 "	12	5 "	9½
Do. ordinary.........	8¼ "	8½	5¼ "	5½
Do. middling.........	8¾ "	9	5¾ "	6
Do. fair..............		9¾	7¼ "	7½
Do. good fair and fine	10 "	11½	8¼ "	9¼
Upland and Florida....	8 "	11	5 "	8¼
Do. middling.........	8¼ "	8¾	5¾ "	6
Do. fair..............	9¼ "	9½	6½ "	7
Do. good fair.........	9¾ "	10	7½ "	8

Prices of Cotton this day, Dec. 18, 1844.

	cts.	cts.
New-Orleans and Mobile.........	3¾ to	6
Do. inferior....................		
Do. ordinary....................	4½ "	4¾
Do. middling....................	5¼ "	5½
Do. fair........................	6¼ "	6½
Do. good fair..................	7¼ "	7½
Do. fine........................	7¾ "	8
Upland and Florida............	4½ "	7
Do. ordinary....................	4½ "	4¾
Do- middling..................	5¼ "	5½
Do- fair........................	5⅞ "	6
Do good fair and fine..........	6¼ "	6½

Crop of 1830..............1,039,000*
Value....12½ cts.......$51,950,000.

Crop of 1844..............2,200,000†
Value.... 6¼ cts....... 55,000,000.

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* Crop of 1830 .....415,600,000 lbs.

† Crop of 1844......884,000,000 lbs.

Prices of Cotton for the Crop of 1844 *and* 1845.

(Compiled by Martin, Munn & Earle, Cotton Brokers, 90 Wall-street.)

	March 1, 1845.		Sept. 1, 1845.	
Mobile and New-Orleans:	cts.	cts.	cts.	cts.
ordinary..........................	5 to	5½	6¼ to	7
middling and middling fair........	5¾ "	6⅜	7¼ "	8½
fair and good fair................	6⅝ "	7¼	8¾ "	9
good and fine.....................	7⅞ "	8½	9½ "	12½
Upland and Florida:				
ordinary..........................	4⅞ "	5¾	6¼ "	6¾
middling and middling fair........	5½ "	6¼	7 "	7¾
fair and good fair................	6½ "	7	8¼ "	8½
good and fine.....................	7½		8¾ "	9¼

Receipts of cotton for 1845-6, to 25th July..........................		2,048,566 bales.
Exported to Great Britain....................	1,054,379 bales	
" France............................	339,281	
" North of Europe..................	70,585	
" other foreign ports...............	109,317	1,573,562
Leaving for home consumption and stock in the ports............		475,004
Stock 1st Sept., 1845......................................		159,772
		634,776

Consumption of United States for 1845-6, probably 425,000 bales.

PRICES.

	March 1, 1846		Aug. 1, 1846			March 1, 1846		Aug. 1, 1846	
N. Orleans and Mobile:	cts.	cts.	cts.	cts.	Upland and Florida:	cts.	cts.	cts.	cts.
ordinary............	6¾ to	7¼	7¼ to	7½	ordinary............	6¾ to	7	7⅛ to	7½
mid'g and mid'g fair.	7½ "	8¼	7¾ "	8⅝	mid'g and mid'g fair.	7½ "	7⅝	7⅞ "	8¼
fair and good fair....	8½ "	9	9¼ "	10	fine and good fair,...	8⅜ "	8¾	8½ "	9
good and fine........	9¼ "	12	10½ "	12½	good and fine........	none		none.	

Average price of middling in New-York, for 11 months:
Gulf cotton.............7½c Upland.............7⅝c

C. RICH & CO.'S IMPROVED PATENT SALAMANDER SAFES.

(Late Robertson & Rich.)

WARRANTED DRY AS WELL AS FIRE-PROOF.

As the friends and patrons of every useful improvement, we have great pleasure in stating that we have seen the most abundant testimony to the efficacy of Rich & Co.'s improved fire safes. The proprietors refer to upwards of five hundred and fifty firms, who have them in use in various parts of the United States, and produce certificates in the greatest abundance, of their efficacy in preserving their contents in a dry and sound state, though exposed to the heaviest conflagrations. Their locks are also testified to, as giving security against robbers and plunderers.

They are made of every size and value, from 50 to 500 dollars each, and are for sale by A. L. Marvin, general agent, 138½ Water street, New-York: also by Isaac Bidge, 76 Magazine street, New-Orleans.

MINING AND OTHER INTELLIGENCE.

[*From the London Mining Journal of August* 28.]

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METAL.

London, August 28, 1845.

	£	s.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	£	s.	d.
Iron—Bar *a*. Wales..ton	0	0—	8	10	0	*Copper*—Ordin. sheets lb	0	0—	0	0	10½
" London....	0	0—	9	10	0	" bottoms.	0	0—	0	0	11½
Nail rods "	0	0—	10	5	0	*Tin*—Com. blocks *g*. cwt	0	0—	4	12	0
Hoop (Staf)	11	5—	11	10	0	" bars	0	0—	4	13	6
Sheet " " ..	0	0—	13	0	0	Refined	0	0—	4	15	0
Bars " " ..	0	0—	11	0	0	Straits *h*..........	4	11—	4	12	0
Rails, average...	9	10—	9	15	0	Banca	0	0—	4	14	6
Welsh cold blast foundry pig	4	5—	5	0	0	*Tin Plates*—Ch. IC*i*, box	1	9—	1	11	0
						" IX. ...	1	15—	1	17	0
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde	3	14—	3	16	0	Coke, IC	0	0—	1	5	0
Russian CCND *c* .	0	0—	16	0	0	" IX....	0	0—	1	11	0
" PSI.....	0	0—	16	0	0	*Lead*—Sheet *k*.......ton	0	0-	19	10	0
" Gourieff..	14	5—	14	10	0	Pig, refined......	0	0-	21	0	0
" Archangel	0	0—	13	10	0	" common	0	0-	18	10	0
Swedish *d*, on the spot.	11	0—	11	10	0	" Spanish, in bd	0	0-	17	15	0
" Steel, fagt. .	0	0—	15	5	0	" American....	0	0-	17	15	0
" " kegs *e*	0	0—	13	5	0	*Spelter*—(Cake) *l*	19	5-	19	10	0
Copper—Tile *f*........	0	0—	92	0	0	*Zinc*—(Sheet) *m* export*	0	0-	28	0	0
Tough cake......	0	0—	93	0	0	*Quicksilver*, *n*.........lb	0	0—	0	4	6
Best selected.....	0	0—	96	0	0	*Refined Metal*.......ton	4	15—	5	0	0

a Discount 2½ per cent. *b* Net cash. *c* Discount 2½ per cent. *d* Ditto *e* In kegs ½ and ⅝-inch. *f* Discount 3 per cent. *g* Ditto 2½ per cent. *h* Net cash. in bond. *i* Discount 3 per cent. *k* Ditto 2½ per cent. *l* Net Cash. *m* Discount 1½ per cent. *n* Discount 1¼ per cent. * For home use it is 32*l*. per ton.

[*From our Correspondent.*]

Iron.—Demand for Welsh and Staffordshire continues fair, and the prices are steady; a good business has been done this week in Scotch pig at 73s. to 74s. for mixed Nos.; and at 75s. to 76s. for No. 1.—In foreign iron nothing doing, but sales of Swedish steel, both on the spot and for arrival, have been made at quotations.

Tin and Tin Plates continue in very good demand; and the stock of each article is very limited.

Spelter has been more in demand this week; sales have been made at 19*l*., and 19*l*. 5*s*., and sales at 2*s*. 6*d*. higher are reported.

In other metals no change to report.

[*Communicated by Messrs. Whitcomb and Barton, Old Broad-street.*]

English bar iron continues very firm at the late advance; large orders are in the market at former prices, which have been declined.—In Staffordshire and Welsh pig iron the demand has greatly increased, and higher rates paid. The Scotch pig iron market has been rather dull during the week—holders, however, are not disposed to give way; orders being expected by the next American packet, which will, in all probability, greatly affect prices:—sales have been made to-day at 76*s*. 6*d*. and 77*s*. 6*d*., mixed Nos., bill at three and four months. Foreign iron and steel still dull of sale. In spelter sales are reported this week to 19*l*. 5*s*. and 19*l*. 7*s*. 6*d*.

CURRENT PRICE OF GOLD AND SILVER.

Foreign gold in bars, per oz.	£3	17	9	New dollars, - - - per oz.	£0	4	9½
do do Portugal pieces,	3	17	5	Silver in bars (standard)	0	4	11¼

GLASGOW PIG-IRON TRADE.

To the Editor of the Mining Journal:

SIR:—There has been little doing here in Scotch pig iron since the date of our last communication. A few parcels of No. 1 have been forced on the market for immediate payment, which realised 75s. Nothing considerable could be bought under 71s. 6d. for No. 3; 74s. for 3-5ths No 1 and 2-5ths No. 3; and 76s. to 77s. 6d. for No. 1—cash, free on board.

Glasgow, August 26. DOUGLASS & HILL.

Austrian Mining Company.—Additional advices have been received from the works, during the past week, fully corroborative of the favorable anticipations alluded to in the Journal of the 16th August, as contained in the reports then received by the directors. It appears, however, that the local superintendent requires the assistance of some additional hands, particularly engineers, and such as are familiar with iron manufactures. The company obtained, in May last, a concession for a railroad to the sea, passing directly through the mines. This concession has, upon certain conditions, been made over to Mr. Bushenthall, a large shareholder in the mining company, who has undertaken the construction of it with purely Spanish capital, and has formed for the purpose a strong directory at Madrid, where the shares are all subscribed for, and held at a premium. In the early part of the ensuing year, the engineer-in-chief expects that the mining company will be in a condition to pay a dividend to the shareholders, upon the paid-up capital, of 15 or 20 per cent. from actual returns, grounding his opinion that this may be done upon various calculations. In September next, the first furnace will be in full blast, when, from the quantity and quality of the ore, the company will be able to manufacture iron as cheaply as it may be done in the most favored districts in this country. Its manufacture is also protected by the almost prohibitory *ad valorem* duty on importation of 16l. to 20l. per ton. Iron is, moreover, in great demand in Spain, and sells freely, especially for light fabrics, such as balconies, railings, &c., at from 25l. to 30l. per ton, and in bars at from 18l. to 22l. per ton—leaving, consequently, a profit of fully 15l. per ton. Other advantages, having reference to the supply of coke to certain ordnance works of the government, which is done by the company, and to the possession of a quicksilver mine, at present worked only to pay its expenses, but which may be turned to great account when attention can be withdrawn a little from the more important operations of the company, are adverted to as contributing to the probability of highly satisfactory results.

Substitute for gunpowder—Valuable discovery.—The attention of the scientific world has been drawn to the discovery, by Professor Schönbein, of an explosive compound, which appears to possess many advantages over gunpowder.

A cotton is prepared by a process not yet divulged—but which is, in all probability, one that depends on the formation of a nitrogen compound. This cotton possesses many remarkable properties. On the application of a spark, the solid mass is at once converted to a gaseous state; and a scientific gentleman, who has witnessed some experiments in the laboratory of Professor Schönbein, informs us that, whereas an equal weight of gunpowder, when exploded, filled the apartment with smoke, the cotton exploded without producing any—leaving only a few atoms of carbonaceous matter behind. Common balls and shells have been projected by this prepared cotton, and it is stated to have the projectile force of gunpowder. An interesting experiment was recently tried on the walls of an old castle. It had been calculated, that from three to four pounds of gunpowder would be required to destroy it—and a hole, capable of holding that quantity, was prepared. Professor Schönbein being desirous of testing the explosive force of his new preparation, placed four ounces of it in the hole; which, when fired, blew the massy walls to pieces. Another valuable property of this cotton is, that it is not injured by wet; as it appears that, after being dried, it has lost nothing of its power. It, of course, remains to be seen if it is, in all respects, equal to gunpowder; but, under many circumstances, it may prove of great value. It is expected that Professor Schönbein will attend the meeting of the British Association, at Southampton; when, no doubt, we shall hear more of this extraordinary discovery.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

Essays on the Progress of Nations, in productive industry, civilization, population and wealth. Illustrated by Statistics of Mining, Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, Banking, Revenues, Internal Improvements, Emigration, Mortality and Population. By Ezra C. Seaman, Detroit: M. Griger & Co., Printers, 1846.

We have not had this book in our possession a sufficient length of time, to give it that thorough examination it appears richly to merit.

As our readers will perceive, its scope is very extensive, and the various subjects of which it treats of deep moment. All that we can at present say is, that we have been much pleased with such portions of it, as time has permitted us to examine.

The author is evidently a deep thinker, lays his foundation on what he considers the laws of nature, dividing man into his two constituent principles, of physical and moral properties, and after pointing out the tendencies of each, he thus generalizes:

"Man's intellect and understanding were given to him to enable him to judge of, learn from experience, and understand the properties, tendencies, and effects of all the elements of matter, and of all their various combinations; that he might avoid such elements, combinations and quantities as are injurious and dangerous to him, and whose evil tendencies he cannot control, and use such materials and in such combinations and quantities, and in such mode of the human system, as to promote his health and general good. In hot climates, he promotes and secures his general health and welfare and that of his family, by planting shade trees and building a house, to protect them from the burning heat of the sun during the day. In very cold climates, he is constantly struggling with the cold instead of the heat, and is obliged to build a house or hut as warm as possible, and to provide himself with a large amount of fuel and of clothing, of leather, furs and skins, or of cloth made of wool, to protect himself from the severity of the cold. In changeable, and what are usually termed temperate climates, he finds it necessary to resort to all these means, and to use these and many others; some to protect himself from the excessive heats of summer, and others to defend him against the cold of winter; and in all climates he must use means to protect himself against rains, storms, dews, winds and bad air; and must also provide himself a sufficiency for every day's use, of wholesome water as well as food.

Man is born in perfect helplessness and ignorance, and yet he is required to conform to the laws of God, as unfolded in the volume of nature; and must learn them before he can do so. His whole life should therefore be a constant effort to learn these laws; to prevent the physical appetites and propensities of his nature from running into excess and vice; to resist and avoid the laws of nature, and of the elements and combinations of matter which are dangerous or injurious to him; to subdue and regulate properly his own appetites and passions; and to subdue the earth, and convert its products into useful instruments and materials for securing and promoting his health, enjoyment and general welfare. Hence, one of the first and most important duties of parents, is to give their children as much instruction as in their power, adapted to their station and condition, to fit them in the best manner to perform their duties, provide for and satisfy their own wants, and for the great duties and business of life, upon which they have entered. * * * *

It must have been designed by the Deity, and probably forms the basis of his moral law and government, that man should be subject to a constant struggle with the physical laws of nature, and required to make great efforts to support life and satisfy his own wants, and provide for his own comforts, as a suitable discipline to develope his faculties, and fit him for a higher state of existence.

The moral law and government of God, which may be called the moral law of nature, therefore requires man to develope his faculties; to struggle against the physical laws of nature, and provide for his own wants and comforts, and to act under all circumstances, in such a manner as to promote his own general welfare and happiness, and that of his fellow beings, and particularly of those depending upon him, to the greatest extent possible." * * *

Our author then proceeds to define the meaning of "utility." "Utility is a tendency to promote the general welfare and happiness. Utility and justice are the principle tests to determine, what is in accordance with the moral laws of nature, and the will of God, and they are therefore the chief tests of human action and virtue, as well as of all human laws. He must look to their general tendency, and not to any particular tendency, which may be the result of particular circumstances; and in relation to utility, it is the general utility, or to all the persons affected by it, and not to that kind of utility which necessarily injures one by benefiting another, like the traffic in intoxicating drinks, and the business of providing vicious amusements."

We are not permitted from want of space to pursue his chain of moral causes, which appear to us fair, amounting almost to what might be called moral axioms. We therefore proceed to show the author's views of the adaptation of them to the welfare of a nation, on which he thus reasons:

"Though the laws of nature are uniform in their operation, yet man, by his inventive powers, and his own efforts and industry during a series of years, can alter the face of nature, and convert the ores and mineral substances, in the bowels of the earth, and other material things, and nature's products as well as nature's laws into instruments and mechanical powers, to augment the productiveness of his own industry and the productiveness of the earth. The more labor-saving machinery he can invent, and bring into use, the more easily he can subdue the earth; convert its resources and products to his use; increase the products of agricultural industry as well as mechanical industry, and facilitate their transportation and exchange; and the more capital he can accumulate; and this again aids him in rendering his industry still more and more productive, and enables him to increase both his capital and wealth, and to multiply his comforts with still greater and greater rapidity. Capital is not only wealth in itself, but it is one of the principal elements, instruments, and agents, by which man makes his industry productive, whereby he creates value, produces what is necessary to supply his own wants, accumulates wealth."

Our author then goes on, and gives a history of the progress of the human mind, and shows the advancement of the useful arts of Europe. His next theme is the progress of the human mind, aided, as he shows, by this augmentation of the physical means of bettering his condition.

Chapter the 3rd is on Civilization, from which we quote the following:—

"Civilization consists in the developement and melioration of the intellectual, physical and moral faculties, constitution and condition of man; and in the improvement of the social system, and government of the society in which he lives. The highest degree of civilization for which man was designed by his creator, consists in such a developement and improvement of his intellectual, physical and moral faculties, constitution and condition, and such an organization and improvement of the social system, and system of government under which he lives, as tend to secure his rights, promote his general welfare and happiness to the greatest extent in the aggregate, of which his nature is susceptible. The institutions of religion are also included under the term social system; and the developement of the sources of the country, together with the accumulation of capital and of the comforts of life, are included under the term physical condition. This definition is a condensation of the statement and definition of civilization given by M. Guizot, the learned French scholar and statesman, in his lectures on the general history of the civilization of Europe; except that less importance is attached by him to the physical condition of man."

He then continues to show what are the primary wants of man—food, drink and clothing, fuel, and a tent or house to shelter him from the elements.

"The first step in his progress, is to tame, domesticate, and subject to use, such animals as will furnish him food and clothing, or be useful as beasts of burden, and labor in subduingt he earth."

The second step in his progress is to learn to make iron, and to convert it into edge tools and other tools, and instruments of mechanism, to enable him to work in wood, stone, and other materials, and to convert them to use.

The next and third step in his progress is to invent and make ploughs, tools, and other instruments for digging up and cultivating the earth.

"As agriculture (he continues) cannot be carried on except to a very trifling extent, without various tools and instruments, made partly of iron or copper, and partly of wood; the wood part of which cannot be made without edge tools made of iron or hardened copper, it follows as a necessary consequence, that not only the art of making iron or copper, but the mechanism required to make the tools and implements of agriculture, must precede the practice itself of agriculture. Some portion of the mechanic arts, therefore, necessarily precede agriculture, which is entirely dependant upon them, and cannot exist without them * * * Agriculture is therefore dependant upon the mechanic arts, not only for its origin, but also for every step of its progress in the march of improvement. It follows the mechanic arts, but it cannot precede them, and may be said to be the fourth step in the progress of civilization."

Commerce comes last, as our author truly says; and here he quotes Mr. Jefferson's letter to Austin, to state "that the manufacturer should be placed by the side of the farmer."

He then goes more fully into trade, and introduces the great and governing rule of demand and supply, and says further, that "No exclusively agricultural nation above the thirty fifth degree of latitude ever did, or ever can become rich and prosperous. The free trade (he says) between Ireland and the Canadas and Great Britain, together with the statutes of the British Parliament to discourage manufactures and the mechanic arts, in those countries, and keep them dependant on England, has had the same depressing influence, and kept the Canadas as well as Ireland poor, when compared with Scotland and some of our free states; and much more so when compared with England. Why is China so much more prosperous, wealthy and flourishing, than Turkey, Spain, Portugal and even Mexico? It cannot be owing to the government, for the Emperor of China is equally absolute, and unlimited in power as the Sultan of Turkey. Can any cause be assigned, except the mechanic arts and an extensive domestic commerce?" * * *

We have thus imperfectly given a running outline of the views of the author, who is a thorough advocate of the protective system, truly believing, as he says, that "progressive improvement and advancement in civilization depend on industry; productive industry depends mostly on the rewards and compensations of labor, and the activity of commerce, which act as stimulants to the mind of man; and these again depend almost entirely upon the mechanic arts and machinery.

It may therefore be truly said, that a division of employment, agriculture, commerce, and the whole fabric of civilization, all depend upon the mechanic arts, and cannot exist without them; and that as a general rule, no nation or people can advance in civilization any farther than they make progress in the mechanic arts, and the sciences on which they are based."

We must now conclude this extended notice of this work, which we think highly creditable to its author. He is not, as he admits himself, a practised writer, but this by no means lessens the value of his work, which may be considered as a full and complete treatise on the progress of nations, embracing all the elements of public and private wealth. There are many and valuable tables of statistics on every branch of the subject, and we recommend the whole to the careful examination of all, who are desirous of informing themselves, not only upon the general principles of political economy—not the political economy of the schools, but of a much more practical and useful kind.

Two Lives; or, to Seem and to Be. By Maria J. McIntosh, author of "Conquest and Self-Conquest," "Praise and Principle," "Woman an Enigma," &c. &c. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton, 148 Chestnut street. 1846.

This is a well written book, intended to convey a high moral, and certainly accomplishes its object. The story is of two young American females, born in the South, and sent to the North for their education and future settlement in life.

Of course, the one, (Grace,) adopts the first character *to seem*, and Isabel the wiser determination *to be;* and as the natural consequence, the latter is well married to a Clergyman, and is happily situated—the former "Grace" marries a French Marquis, goes with him abroad, returns a broken-hearted widow, and ends her days in misery.

The story is well told, keeps up the interest of the reader; undoubtedly conveys the moral intended, and therefore is so far valuable. We think, however, that there is somewhat too much of an overstraining desire in the author to insist upon an established truth, namely, that modesty, grace and truthfulness, must ever be promotive of the love of others, and of happiness to their possessors; while levity, fiction, and an inordinate love of fashion, lead to the reverse; rendering those who rely upon a false existence, unamiable, unloveable, and consequently unhappy. There is, we think, rather a desire throughout the book, to exact too much from the young and the lively, who often in early life manifest a desire for amusement, and even hilarity, who become sedate mothers, and ornaments to society.

We do not wish to be hypercritical, or to cast any censure upon the author, who we learn is the sister of the gallant Captain McIntosh, of the American Navy—far from it—she has written a good and useful book, and in what we have said, we are only asking for her lovely, and often highly talented sisters, who may be somewhat less sombre than her Isabella, and are charmed with the world and its fascinations, an exemption from a censure, which we do not think they merit. There is a happy medium in these things, and we are rejoiced to know that our country now possesses thousands of women, who as wives and mothers are its proud ornaments, and yet who, in early youth, adorned the fashionable circles in which they moved.

No. 7. of the *Pictoral History of England*, issuing by the Harpers, fully sustains the character we have heretofore given of this useful work. This number contains the Civil and Military transactions of the latter part of the twelfth century. Chapter the 2d gives the History of Religion, with a picture of the Consecration of Thomas a Becket, also Becket's Crown, a Chapel in Canterbury Cathedral, and the ruins of the Augustine Monastery at Canterbury; with full length portraits and costumes of a Benedictine, a Carthusian, a Cestercian, a Templar in his mantle, and of Odo, Bishop of Bayeux pronouncing a pastoral blessing. The last 18 pages are devoted to the history of the Constitution, Government and Laws.

Harper's Catalogue of Valuable Books, in the several departments of General Literature. Published by Harper and Brothers, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

We have here before us such an evidence of the perseverance and usefulness of a great publishing house in this city, as to deserve our especial notice, and excite our admiration. The catalogue of the works issued from the press in Cliff street, occupies 97 pages, and we find every department of Literature well represented. Twenty-three different classes of books, and about fourteen hundred different authors, have been brought to the attention of the American public, by the Harpers, within a few years. Their establishment is on an immense scale, and this catalogue is a convincing proof of their tact and cleverness.

Few persons are aware of the influence, for good or for evil, which extensive publishers exercise over the public mind. They, to a certain extent, control the public taste, by furnishing for its appetite the moral food which it craves, and they thus incur a serious responsibility.

It is therefore a cause of great congratulation to the American public, that the immense power wielded in this respect by the Messrs. Harpers, has been used to the dissemination of sound morals and useful knowledge.

Their Family Library alone, has penetrated to almost every corner of the world, and surely, no work so extensive, is calculated to do more good by the dissemination of a vast mass of intelligence in almost every department of knowledge and science. It must be a proud satisfaction to these enterprising publishers, that while they have reapt, and are reaping, rich pecuniary rewards, they have done so much "to raise the genius and to mend the heart."

A first Book in Latin, containing Grammar Exercises and Vocabularies on the Method of constant Imitation and Repetition. By JOHN MCCLINTOCK, A. M., Professor of Languages, and GEORGE R. CROOKS, A. M., Adjunct Professor of Languages in Dickinson College. Harper and Brothers, publishers, 82 Cliff Street, New York. 1846.

We have carefully looked through this Grammar, which is very full, and being well studied, it is calculated to make the foundation of the language it teaches deep and lasting. We give the following views of the author as set forth in his preface: "We have aimed to combine the advantages of constant repetition and imitation of Latin sentences from the beginning with a more thorough drilling in etymological forms than is common. In order to effect this combination, we have necessarily deviated from the ordinary grammatical course to some extent; but we trust that experienced teachers will find from an examination of the table of contents alone, that our arrangement is not devoid of systematic and even logical order."

The table of contents is indeed copious and well arranged, and we doubt not in the hands of a skilful teacher, much aid would be derived, from so full and complete an exposition of the nature of the Latin language.

Ollendorff's method of Learning to Read, Write. and Speak the Italian Language, adapted for the use of Schools and private teachers—with additions and corrections. By Felix Fereste, LL. D., Professor of the Italian language and literature in Columbia College, and in the University of the city of New-York. New-York : D. Appleton and company, 200 Broadway. Philadelphia : George S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut street, 1846.

This is, of course, another of Ollendorf's applications of his method of teaching adapted to the Italian language. We agree with the writer of the preface where he says, "The thanks of all who are interested in the cultivation of the Italian language and literature in the United States are justly due to the enterprizing publishers of this American edition of Ollendorff's New Method."

It is a clear philosophical and well digested grammar, following nature, and teaching the language, by making the scholar familiar with words and phrases, before burthening his mind with its grammatical construction. Thus, a child learns its mother tongue, and can hold a conversation for all useful purposes before it knows a single rule of grammar. We have before given our high opinion of this new method, and need only add, that we are glad to see it adapted to the Italian—the tongue in which Dante, Ariosto and Tasso, have rendered their names immortal.

Gammer Gurton's Famous Histories of Sir Guy of Warwick, Sir Bevis of Hampton, Tom Kickathrift, Friar Bacon, Robin Hood, and the King and the Cobbler—newly revised and amended. New-York : Wiley and Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

Gammer Gurton's Pleasant Stories of the Princess Rosetta, Robin Goodfellow and Patient Grissel ; with Gammer Gurton's Garland, and ballads of Babes in the Wood, The Beggar's Daughter and Fair Rosamond ; newly revised and amended. New-York, Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway.

These are two really beautiful children's books, elegantly got up in the old ornamental style of printing ; and although in the present utilitarian age, there may be prejudices against stories such as are here collected, we confess we have no fears of any ill effects to the morals of children from them, and think the writer of the preface truly says : "Their design is to cultivate the heart, to enrich the fancy, to stir up kindly feelings, to encourage a taste for the beautiful, and to accomplish this by taking advantage of the youthful longing for amusement !

Wiley & Putnam's *Library of American Books.* No. 20. *Papers on Literature and Art.* By S. Margaret Fuller, in two parts.

We have read these two volumes with very great pleasure, and are free to confess they have greatly raised the author in our estimation. Her criticisms are in the main just ; and disclose a mind well stored with a knowledge of the true and the beautiful. Perhaps some readers may think her somewhat fanciful, yet she appears properly to estimate everything that is lovely and loveable, as much "unadorned as when adorned the most." We much like the sentiment contained in the following paragraph, taken from her remarks on the "Recollections of a Hand-Loom Weaver, by William Thom of Iverney."

"There is another mode which enters into the natural history of every thing that breathes and lives, which believes no impulse to be entirely in vain, which scrutinizes circumstances, motives and objects, before it condemns and believes there is a beauty in each natural form, if its law and purpose be understood. It does not consider a literature merely as the garden of a nation, but as the growth of an entire region, with all its variety of mountain, forests, pasture, and tillage lands. Those who observe in this spirit will often experience, from some humble offering to the muses, the delight felt by the naturalist in the grasses, and lichens of some otherwise barren spot. These are the earliest and humblest efforts of nature, but to a discerning eye they indicate the entire range of her energies."

Nothing is more true than this ; which is in full unison with Gray, where he says—

> "Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
> The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear ;
> Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
> And waste its sweetness on the desert air."

The Expedition to Borneo of H. M. S. Dido for the Suppression of Piracy, with extracts from the Journal of James Brooke, Esquire, of Sarawak, (now agent for the British Government in Borneo.) By Capt. the Hon. HENRY KEPPEL, R. N. New-York, Harper and Brothers, publishers, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

Borneo, one of the largest, if not the largest island in the world, is but little known throughout Christendom ; and in this work we have a very excellent account of it, by an intelligent and amiable enthusiast. The following account of Mr. Brooke and his motives are taken from the first chapter.

"He enquired and read, and became convinced that Borneo and the eastern isles afforded an open field for enterprize and research. To carry to the Malay races, so long the terror of the European merchant vessels, the blessings of civilization, to suppress piracy, and extirpate the slave trade, became his humane and generous objects ; and from that hour the energies of his powerful mind were devoted to this one pursuit. Often foiled, often disappointed, but animated with a perseverance and enthusiasm which defied all obstacles, he was not, till 1838, enabled to set sail from England on his darling project." He did, however, then set sail, and the following is the account given in his own words of his feelings in accomplishing the perilous task he had undertaken. "I go to awaken the spirit of slumbering philanthropy with regard to these islands. Fortune and life I give freely ; and if I should fail in the attempt, I shall not have lived wholly in vain." This book gives the interesting account of his adventures, and we recommend it to the perusal of all who desire to know the happy issue of his mission, and the perils he underwent in its accomplishment.

No. 65 & 66, "Books which are Books."

Wiley and Putnam's library of Choice Reading—Italy, Spain and Portugal, with an Excursion to the Monasteries of Alcobaca and Batalha. By WILLIAM BECKFORD, author of "Vathek," in two parts. New-York : Wiley and Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

Although we have many of the records of travellers who have visited the delightful places, an account of which is given in these letters, few of them possess the same pleasing, graphic and accurate descriptions contained in these volumes. The author of "Vathek" is too well known to need praise from us, though we may surely be permitted to say we have derived great pleasure, from accompanying him, through the pleasant paths and well described scenes which he has laid open in the book before us.

No. 67. Hochelaga ; or England in the New World. Edited by Eliot Warburton, Esquire, author of the "Crescent and the Cross," in two parts. New-York : Wiley and Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

These travels are written in a lively and terse manner. The first volume treats principally of the British possessions in America.—The second, of the United States. The author of course has English prejudices, but he is an acute observer, and has made a book, which no one can read without receiving amusement and instruction.

FISHER'S

NATIONAL MAGAZINE

AND

Industrial Record.

Vol. III. NEW-YORK, NOVEMBER, 1846. No. 6.

BRITISH NAVIGATION ACT AND COLONIAL PRIVILEGES.

We have, on more than one occasion, in the course of our labors, called the attention of our readers to the fact, that the navigation laws of England, and the privileges granted to her colonies, together with the treaties falsely called *treaties of reciprocity*, which we have with other countries, were a serious injury to our shipping interests.

With a view to show this more fully, we now commence the publication of extracts, from document No. 163, 27th Congress, 2nd session: House of Representatives, State Department, dated March 31, 1842, by which the subject of the restrictions to which our commerce is subjected from the causes above stated, will more fully appear.

It is not a little remarkable that the advocates of free trade should entirely overlook the disadvantages under which our trade with the British colonies is carried on. British navigation is rapidly superseding our own in the importations of produce from her colonial possessions to the United States, and also in exports from this country to the said colonies, as well as directly to Great Britain.

In the year 1830, the exports, by British ships to Great Britain, were $5,987,000 against $19,876,000 by American ships.

In 1844, the exports by British ships were $18,716,000, against $19,876,000 by American ships.

This, we think, shows a state of things which should, at least, cause inquiry, unless the new doctrine, attempting to be put in practice, under the name of Free Trade, is to sacrifice the American shipping interest, as well as the American mechanic and laborer.

But we have not the intention, at this time, of doing more than simply transferring to our columns a record of the official statement from the document already named.

The subject is one of deep importance to our ship owners, for the amount of foreign tonnage is fast gaining upon them; and if they are not willing to have their interest sacrificed to the negligence of the government, it is high time some measures were in progress to call the attention of Congress to the subject.

We have not in our possession regular files of the treasury reports on commerce and navigation, but we extract from those before us the following statements.

American and foreign tonnage entered and cleared in the several ports of the United States in the following years:

	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.
1838	1,302,974	1,408,761	502,110	604,166
1845	2,035,486	2,053,977	910,563	930,275

The following is the extract we make, for the present, intending to continue this subject in a future number:

27th Congress,
2d Session.

Doc. No. 163.

Ho. of Reps.
State Dept.

COMMERCE—THE UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN NATIONS.

LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF STATE,

Transmitting a statement, showing the nature and extent of the privileges and restrictions of the commercial intercourse of the United States with all foreign nations, &c.

[March 31, 1842.—Read, and laid upon the table.]

To the House of Representatives of the United States:

On the 3d day of September last, the House of Representatives passed a resolution in the following terms:

"*Resolved,* That the Secretary of State be required to report to this House, as soon after the commencement of the next session as practicable, a statement of the privileges and restrictions of the commercial intercourse of the United States with all foreign nations, similar to that communicated to the Senate, December 18, 1837, (Doc. 8, 1st session, 26th Congress,) only changing the denominations of the foreign money, weights and measures, into those of the United States, according to the custom-house entries of domestic exports, and adding columns showing the average amount and value of the articles exported to each country for the years 1838, 1839, and 1840, and of the duties on the same; together with a summary of the average aggregate value of exports to each country for those years, of articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, with the average amount of duties thereon accruing to each country."

And on the 31st day of January last, it also resolved, "that, in addition to the information required of the Secretary of State, by the resolution of this House, of the 3rd of September, 1841, he be required to give a table exhibiting a comparative statement between the tariffs of other nations and that of the United States."

Upon the passage of the first of these resolutions, all means, supposed to be necessary and proper for obtaining the information, were adopted. Circulars were written to the American consuls in the principal commercial nations; their tariffs obtained, so far as practicable; existing treaties examined, and recent commercial authorities extensively investigated. Competent persons have been employed in arranging the information thus obtained, and in complying with that part of the first resolution which requires the denominations of foreign moneys, and foreign weights and measures, to be changed into those of the United States. This part of the duty has been found to require great labor.

Notwithstanding the diligence and assiduity bestowed by those employed on the work, in collecting and arranging materials, and the degree of personal attention, not inconsiderable, given to it by the head of the department, it is not improbable that, in a matter so extensive and various, some omissions and mistakes may be found.

It is believed, however, that not only have inaccuracies in the former publication been, in many instances, corrected, but subsequent regulations in the commercial codes of foreign nations stated with a good degree of accuracy. In some cases, indeed, it has been found impossible to obtain the most recent changes of tariff laws; but these cases are supposed not to be numerous or very important.

The tables, exhibiting a comparative statement between the tariffs of other nations and that of the United States, prepared in obedience to the resolution of the 31st of January last, are believed to be essentially correct, and to present a mass of important information in a plain manner.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

March 29, 1842.

REPORT.—ENGLAND.

BRITISH TERRITORIES IN EUROPE AND THE EAST INDIES.

A convention to regulate commerce between the territories of the United States and His Britannic Majesty, was concluded on the 3d of July, 1815; the principal provisions of which are:

1st. There shall be a reciprocal liberty of commerce between the territories of the United States and all the territories of His Britannic Majesty *in Europe.*

2d. No higher duties are to be imposed on articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, when imported into the other, than are payable on the like articles, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any other duties or charges be imposed, in either of the two countries, on the exportation of articles to the one country or the other, respectively, than such as are payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country. Nor shall any prohibition be imposed on the exportation or importation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, respectively, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

3d. The same duties shall be paid on articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, when imported into the other, and the same bounties on exportation, whether such importation or exportation be in the vessels of one of the two countries or the other; and the same drawbacks allowed, on re-exportation, in the vessels of whichever country the goods may have been originally imported; but when such re-exportation shall take place from the United States, in a British vessel, or from the territories of His Britannic Majesty in Europe in an American vessel, to any other foreign nation, the two contracting parties reserve to themselves, respectively, the right of regulating or diminishing, in such case, the amount of the said drawback.

4th. The intercourse between the United States and the British possessions in the West Indies, not to be affected by these provisions; but each party to remain, in respect to such intercourse, in the complete possession of its rights.

5. Vessels of the United States of America to be admitted and hospitably received at the principal settlements of the British dominions in the East Indies, viz: Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and Prince of Wales's island; and citizens of the United States freely to carry on trade between the said principal settlements and the said United States, in all articles of which the importation and exportation, respectively, to and from the said territories, shall not be entirely prohibited; provided, only, that it shall not be lawful for them, in any time of war between the British government and any state or power whatever, to export from the said territories, without the special permission of the British government, any military stores or naval stores, or *vice versa.* The citizens of the United States to pay for their vessels, when admitted, no higher or other duty or charge than shall be payable on the vessels of the most favored European nations, and to pay no higher or other duties or charges on the importation or exportation of the cargoes of the said vessels, than shall be payable on the same articles when imported or exported in the vessels of the most favored European nations.

Vessels of the United States not to carry any articles from the said principal settlements to any port or place, except to some port or place in the United States of America, where the same shall be unladen.

The permission granted by this article is not to extend to allow the vessels of the United States to carry on any part of the coasting trade of the said British territories; but the vessels of the said States, having in the first instance proceeded to one of the said principal settlements of the British dominions in the East Indies, and then going with their original cargoes, or part thereof, from one of the said principal settlements to another, not to be considered as carrying on the coasting trade. Vessels of the United States may also touch for refreshment, but not for commerce, in the course of their voyage to or from the British territories in India, or to or from the dominions of the Emperor of China, at the Cape of Good Hope, the island of St. Helena, or such other places as may be in the possession of Great Britain, in the African or Indian seas; it being well understood, that in all that regards this article, the citizens of the United States are to be subject, in all respects, to the laws and regulations of the British government from time to time established.

This convention was limited to the term of four years, but by another convention, signed on the 20th of October, 1818, was extended for ten years from that date; and by another convention, signed on the 6th of August, 1827, it was agreed, that all the provisions of the convention of the 3rd of July, 1815, should be indefinitely continued and extended; but that it should be competent, nevertheless, to either of the parties, on giving twelve months' notice, to annul and abrogate the said convention.

No such notice has been given by either party, and consequently the convention remains still in force.

It will be perceived that this convention does not interfere with the general principle of the English laws of navigation, so far as respects intercourse between the United States and the English possessions in Europe; and that the productions of any country but the United States are not allowed to be imported in American vessels.

And the act of Parliament for carrying the convention into effect, requires the master and *three-fourths* of the crew to be American citizens. As our laws require only that the master and two-thirds of the crew shall be American citizens, in order to constitute the vessel an American vessel, it may admit of doubt whether this requisition of the British statute be in strict accordance with the intent of the stipulation in the treaty.

BRITISH COLONIAL POSSESSIONS.

The commercial intercourse of the United States with the colonies of Great Britain in America, that is to say, with the West India islands; the settlements on the South American continent; and the North American possessions, continental and insular, is regulated by the act of Congress of the 29th of May, 1830; the President's Proclamation of October 5, 1830; the British Order in Council, of November 5, 1830, and subsequent orders, enlarging the number of warehousing and free ports.

The trade is limited to the following places, viz:

Kingston,	Jamaica.	Miramichi,	New-Brunswick.
Savanna la Mar,		Saint John's,	
Montego Bay,		Saint Andrew's,	
Santa Lucia,		Port of Magaguadavic,	
Antonio,		Welch Pool, in the island of Campo Bello,	
Saint Ann,		Anguilla,	Anguilla.
Falmouth,		Halifax,	Nova Scotia.
Maria,		Picton,	
Morant Bay,		Digby,	
Annotto Bay,		Arichat,	
Black River,		Windsor,	
Rio Bueno,		Parsborough,	
Port Morant,		Cumberland,	
Old Harbor,		Shelburne,	
Saint George,	Grenada.	Lunenburg,	
Roseau,	Dominica.	Quebec,	Canada.
St. John's,	Antigua.	Saint John's,	Newfoundland.
San Josef,	Trinidad.	Harbor Grace,	
Scarborough,	Tobago.	George Town,	Demerara.
Road Harbor,	Tortola.	New Amsterdam,	Berbice.
Nassau,	New Providence.	Castries,	Saint Lucia.
Pitt's Town,	Crooked Island.	Basseterre,	Saint Kitts.
Kingston,	Saint Vincent.	Charles Town,	Nevis.
Port Saint George,	Bermuda.	Plymouth,	Montserrat.
Port Hamilton,		Sydney,	Cape Breton.
Any port where there is a custom-house,	Bahamas.	Charlotte Town	Prince Edward's island.
Bridgetown,	Barbadoes.	George Town,	

By the act of the 3d and 4th William IV., cap. 59, sec. 2, it is declared, that "if any goods shall be imported into any port or place in the

said possessions, other than the 'free ports' aforesaid, such goods shall be forfeited."

At all these places, the vessels of the United States are admitted on payment of the same tonnage duties and charges as British vessels, provided the goods composing the cargo be the produce of the United States, and imported directly from the United States.

They are allowed to clear out, whether laden or in ballast, for any foreign country whatever.

The productions of the United States (if similar articles from other foreign countries are not entirely prohibited) are admitted on payment of the same duties and charges as similar articles the produce of any other foreign country, subject (when imported in American vessels) to the same conditions (as to the character of the vessel and crew) as when imported into the British possessions in Europe.

The importation from the United States of all articles, except those of their own growth, produce, or manufacture, is prohibited.

Upon exportations, the same drawbacks, bounties, and allowances are granted, whether the goods be exported or originally imported in American or British vessels.

In the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, vessels and boats of the United States are admitted on payment of the same tonnage, duties and charges, which are chargeable upon British vessels and boats in the ports of the United States.

For the purpose of securing to British bottoms a greater share of the carriage of the produce of the United States to her colonies, Great Britain has erected the following places, among others, into *free* warehousing ports, viz:

Kingston, Montego Bay, and Falmouth,	Jamaica.
Kingston,	Saint Vincent.
Halifax, Pictou, *Liverpool, *Yarmouth, Digby, & Arichat,	Nova Scotia.
Nassau,	New Providence.
Port of Basseterre,	Saint Kitt's.
Port of St. George,	Grenada.
Port of Road Harbor,	Tortola.
San Joseph,	Trinidad.
Quebec, *Kingston and *Montreal,	Canada.
George Town,	Demerara.
Roseau,	Dominica.
Saint John's and Harbor Grace,	Newfoundland.
Saint John's, St. Andrew's & Welch Pool, Campo Bello,	New-Brunswick.
Grand Key, Turk's Island,	Bahamas.
Bridge Town,	Barbadoes.
Port Saint George,	Bermuda.
Sydney,	Cape Breton.
Charles Town,	Nevis.
Port Lewis,	Island of Mauritius.
Astries,	Saint Lucia.

* For the warehousing of goods brought by land or inland navigation, as also those imported by sea.

The warehousing system was adopted in 1803; the statute of 43 George III., cap. 132, laying the foundation of it. By subsequent statutes, however, it has been much extended, all of which legislative regulations are embodied in the acts 3d and 4th William IV., cap. 57, which took effect on the 1st September, 1833.

Under the system adopted in conformity with the provisions of this act, goods imported into the places designated as "free ports," are permitted to be deposited in the public warehouses in the United Kingdom and the British colonial possessions, chargeable with rent and storage, without payment of duties on importation till they are withdrawn for home consumption. If warehoused for re-exportation, no duties are ever paid; the charges for rent and storage only are exacted, for which the merchandise is made liable; thus doing away entirely with the previous system of drawbacks, and the immediate payment of duties on importation, as formerly.

The advantage it secures to British commerce (under the protection, in addition thereto, extended to their own vessels engaged in the carrying trade between the colonies) is, that all goods admitted to warehouse in either one of the colonies, may be conveyed thence in British vessels exclusively, to other British colonies, at a lower rate of duty than similar goods imported in our own vessels to such colonies direct from the United States.

As a part of the commercial system of Great Britain, her navigation act (3d and 4th William IV.) provides, that no article, the produce of any other country, shall be allowed to be brought into the United Kingdom, to be used therein, except in British ships, or those of the producing country.

It further provides, that so much of the productions of the sea as might be wanted for the consumption of Great Britain, should be exclusively procured by British industry, and imported in British ships, both in regard to England and her colonies.

There are several acts of Parliament regulating the trade of British possessions abroad; the main object of all which is to confine them, as far as practicable, in all matters of trade, to a direct intercourse with the mother country. Hence the prohibition of all articles necessary for their consumption from the United Kingdom, except in British bottoms; and no article from a foreign country can be imported into the colonies, any more than into England herself, unless in British ships, or those of the producing country.

A large number of articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, which are permitted to be imported, are subject to a burdensome tax, amounting, in many cases, to almost a prohibitory duty; whilst similar articles are entered, coming in British vessels from other colonial ports, either free or subject to a mere nominal duty.

The ports to which the vessels of the United States are permitted to trade are limited, while it is understood that those of Great Britain find means to enter, for purposes of trade, at other than those denominated "free ports," although the same restriction would appear to have been intended to apply to them.

The present system permits, also, the imposition of duties by the colonial authorities, in addition to those established by the mother country, on articles, the growth, produce or manufacture of the United States, imported into the colonies; and thus they may vary, as is ordinarily the case, in different colonies. It also permits the naturalization of goods, when imported into any colony; and thus, being considered as productions of that colony, to be transported free of duty to any other; these goods, thus transported from one colony to another, only by British vessels; and that American vessels shall bring to the colonies nothing but the products of the United States; and then restricting them to a direct trade between the United States and any *one* of the colonies or provinces.

Prior to the opening of these ports, and while the trade was circuitous through the colonies of a third power, the United States enjoyed a principal share in the carrying trade, which is now almost monopolised by British vessels. In regard to the plaster trade alone, it has been recently set forth in a memorial to Congress, that there is probably imported into the United States from seventy-five to one hundred thousand tons annually, employing a large fleet of vessels. This is now almost entirely imported in British vessels, the annual freight on which is estimated at one hundred and fifty thousand dollars. It is only from certain "free ports," and at an advanced price, that American vessels are allowed to freight with the article; whilst British vessels are privileged to take it direct from the quarries, and at a diminished price—equal, at least, to the amount of a freight from the quarries to the place of exportation. As an act of just reciprocity, in order to render *equal* to both parties the operations of trade, it has been suggested that British vessels should *not be permitted to enter* the ports of the United States, carrying cargoes taken in at any port or place other than those in which American vessels may go and discharge and take on board a cargo.

The discriminating duty imposed by Great Britain in favor of the inter-colonial trade in her own vessels, rather than direct from the United States in American vessels, presents a vast field for the employment of her commercial marine, to the exclusion of our own, in the transportation of our own products. The operation of this system is apparent with regard to the articles of flour, beef, pork, and lumber, to which the attention of Congress was called in another memorial, on this same subject, presented to the last Congress. These products of the United States are admitted from this country into Canada *free*, but are liable to a duty on importation into the British West India possessions of $1.20 per barrel on flour; pork, $2.88 per cwt.; and on lumber, $5.04 per 1,000 feet. The amount of these articles imported into the said dependencies of Great Britain, by sea, and coming under the operation of these duties, is large, but insignificant in comparison with that carried into the provinces over the Canadian frontiers by land, and thus distributed through her North American possessions in her own vessels.

Previous to the opening of these colonial ports to the commerce of the United States, we supplied the British colonies through the neutral islands, as they were called, with the productions of this country; enjoying the entire carrying trade to the neutral islands. At present, American vessels are precluded from the possibility of entering into competition with those of Great Britain, from the superior advantages possessed by the latter; because British vessels have the power of trading between the ports of the United States and any number of British colonial ports on the same voyage, while American vessels are limited to one single colonial port in one voyage. Under existing arrangements, British vessels can enter the ports of the United States with their colonial productions, dispose of them, then take full or partial freights for the West Indies, and thence, again, full freights of molasses, sugar, coffee,

&c., for England. Thus employed, they possess a decided advantage over American vessels, even in direct freights to and from our own ports.

British vessels often make their first freight out from England to the West Indies: having discharged their cargoes, in a few days they are found in one of our Southern ports, with colonial produce, and ready for freight to Europe, or back to the colonies, as they find best; while the profits already realized from the voyage to the British North American possessions enable them to take freight for Europe or the West Indies at a less rate than is possible for the vessels of the United States.

The gradual extinction of our direct trade with the British West Indies, at least in our own vessels, seems an inevitable result from the present arrangement; the discrimination between duties on articles imported into their colonies directly from the United States, and on the same articles when imported circuitously through the provinces, will eventually turn the whole course of trade in that direction. The duty on flour, beef, pork, lumber, staves, and shingles, from the United States, must, of course, take this circuitous mode of importation, as they are all admitted free of duty from the provinces; and whatever of direct trade between the United States and the continental provinces does exist, must be enjoyed by British vessels, in very great measure, in consequence of their superior facilities, at the ports in those colonies, for transportation to the West Indies.

Colonies of Great Britain, with regard to which there exist special enactments, on the part of the mother country, regulating the imports into each.

Malta and Gibraltar.—Malta has been a free port since 1837, when the then existing tariff, customs, and port charges, were wholly abolished. There is now enforced but a moderate imposition of duties on a few articles of general demand, without regard to the country whence imported, for the sake of revenue only, and that revenue designed solely for the support of the administration of the island. The tariff, which does not comprehend over a dozen different species of merchandise, is simple in its character and operations.

Gibraltar is also a free port, subject to no duties whatever on import or export, and imposing but very few restrictions on foreign commerce.

Goods from within the limits of the East India Company's charter are imported to some considerable extent through Malta and Gibraltar. When thus imported in British ships, they are liable to the same duties as though imported direct into the United Kingdom, from some other place within the limits of said charter.

Cape of Good Hope.—The trade of this colony has been subject, heretofore, to the same regulations, in all respects, as the British possessions deemed to be within the limits of the East India Company's charter, until the 10th of August, 1840, when a tariff of the duties of customs was put in operation, under the order in council, payable on goods, wares, and merchandise, imported into that colony

The following is a list of the "free ports," and "free warehousing ports," viz:—Cape Town, Simon's Town, and Port Elizabeth.

Australia.—By this name is designated New Holland New South Wales, and Van Dieman's Land.

These islands are of no inconsiderable importance to the South Sea whalers of the United States, for purposes of traffic, with which a seemingly prosperous trade is carried on, as also of consequence in the procuring temporary supplies, &c. These islands are so situated as to be quite accessible to commercial transactions with the Malays and Chinese, with which half-civilized countries an apparently successful intercourse has been long carried on by our enterprising whalemen and sealers.

A tariff has very recently been established on importations into Port Philip. Duties on British West India or North American rum and tobacco, if imported direct from the United Kingdom, $1.86 per gallon; upon imported foreign spirits, $2.20 per gallon; tobacco, manufactured, 60 cents per pound; unmanufactured, 36 cents per pound; all British manufactures, FREE; all other goods, five per cent. *ad valorem.*

According to an English Treasury order of 29th June and 3d July, 1839, New South Wales (in the table of duties) is to be taken in a comprehensive sense, and be deemed to include Swan river, on the opposite side of the island, and *all* other places in Terra Australis, *without regard to other geographical divisions.*

A maximum of duties is fixed by the mother country, empowering the governor, or any other person administering the government of New South Wales and its dependencies for the time being, by any order or proclamation, to *discontinue* or *reduce* any such duties, from time to time, as occasion may require; and, also, equal power to revive and levy, at any time, duties so discontinued or reduced; but making it unlawful for any governor, or other person administering the government of the said colony, to order the levying or raising of any higher rate of duty. The Governors and Councils of the colonies of New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land are expressly prohibited from imposing any duty or tax whatever, except it be absolutely necessary for local purposes; and then the object, together with the amount to be appropriated and applied, shall be distinctly and particularly stated in the body of the law or ordinance imposing every such tax or duty.

WAGES OF MANUFACTURERS IN CONTINENTAL EUROPE.

In pursuance of our promise to give to our readers the best and most accurate account of the state of the laboring classes in Continental Europe, we now proceed with those of France, which, with those already published, we have obtained from a practical foreigner, who, besides that he has consulted the best authorities, is himself personally well acquainted with the subject.

No doubt, therefore, exists as to the correctness of our statements; and we think that they fully prove what we have often averred, namely, that the *article* which is so much cheaper in Europe than in this country, is MAN.

We hope our well-fed, well-clothed, well-housed, intelligent laborers and mechanics will bear this in mind, and then we think they will know who are their real friends. For they must know, that as labor is the ingredient which gives increased value to all raw materials, so cheap men must make cheap goods; and if these goods are not made to pay a duty that will give the American manufacturer and mechanic a proper share of his own market, he will find his wages will fall and cheapen his labor, and with it himself. Let these statements, all of them, be well examined, for they are full of admonition. We could have condensed them much, and given the facts, but we are anxious to present such a detailed account as shall show that we are in earnest, and intend doing our work thoroughly. We do not mean to be content with a mere text. Our readers shall have the chapter and verse, in all parts of this important subject.

It is the very subject, of all others, that claims the most serious care of the citizens of a Republic, for it lies at the very bottom of their institutions; and once permit the men who are now, for the moment, uppermost, to establish their vicious principles, and deny to the Congress of the United States all power over the commerce of the country, except that of obtaining a revenue at the lowest possible rate of duties, and our mechanics may rest assured it will not be long before they will find wages on a level with those of Europe. Nothing can keep up wages in the United States but a tariff that will secure the home market to the farmer, the mechanic, and the manufacturer.

We state this with a confidence which nothing can impair or weaken, because it has been fully tested, not only by the experience of all nations, but of our own country. Whenever we have had sufficient protection we have had good wages, which have made the working classes comfortable; and whenever we have been without such a tariff, wages have been reduced, employment difficult to be had, and great distress has prevailed among those who have nothing to rely upon but their labor.

We do hope, therefore, that these articles on the Manufacturers of Continental Europe may claim the most serious attention of those whom they may concern; for nothing is more certain in the future, than that we shall have man as cheap in this country as we have shown him to be in the old countries, if those who now have the power in their hands, at Washington, shall be permitted to carry out their plans.

Let no one believe that they cannot do so; the tariff of 1846 is the commencement; and unless there is mighty exertion made, it may be, that instead of removing its objectionable features, party drill may not only continue them; but unless the people speak out in tones not to be misunderstood, it may not be long before the vile principle put forth by Mr. Walker may be further acted upon, and our market be still more, if not entirely, given up to foreigners.

We now submit an account of the wages and condition of the manufacturing population of France.

That their low condition is the result of their institutions, is fully proved from the fact, that the agricultural population is hardly as well fed, as well clothed, or as well housed, and is as badly paid, as we have shown those to be who are employed in manufactures.

We shall give, ere long, statements that will fully and satisfactorily prove this.

WAGES IN FRANCE, AND PHYSICAL CONDITION OF THE ARTISANS.

Mons. Dupin has stated two francs, twenty-six centimes, forty-five cents per day, as the average payment in the northern, and one franc, ninety cent., or thirty eight cents, as the average in the southern provinces. This, it is believed, is perfectly correct. There are numbers of trades wherein one franc, 50 cent. is the average rate of wages per day; but a far greater number earn two francs, which, taking France through, will perhaps be found as near an estimate as can be formed. They who subsist entirely on the profits of weaving plain goods, fall below one franc, twenty-five centimes, twenty-four cents per day net wages; but these form a small and insignificant fraction of the working adults of the country.

The rates of wages in the chief departments of manufacturing labor will now be given. Alsace is the principal cotton district.

In Messrs. Schlumberguer's and Bocard's mills at Guebwillers, the wages are,—

Spinners,	2 to 3 francs per day.
Women,	1 franc, 50 cent. to 2 francs per day.
Girls,	1 franc per day.
Slubbers,	1 fr., 40 cent. to 1 fr. 50 cent. per day.

In the "Rapport," however, given in by these gentlemen, in the year 1829, to a government commissioner of inquiry in France, we find the following different return:—

Men,	1 franc *40 centimes to 2 francs.
Women,	1 franc to 1 franc 20 centimes.
Children,	40 centimes to 70 centimes.

The increased aptitude of the workmen, since 1829, may, in some degree, account for this discrepancy; but from other inquiries it has been proved, that the former of these statements is the maximum, rather than the average rate of payment.

The hours of labor *always exceed thirteen*, and are often fourteen of actual work, children as well as adults. There is no factory regulation law in France.

The wages of the hand-loom weavers are, on the whole, the cost of living being taken into account, higher than in Scotland. In Normandy, and in some few places in Alsace they are as low; everywhere else they are higher, or to speak more correctly, everywhere else have the hand-loom weavers of France a greater amount of the necessaries and comforts of life.

It is unnecessary to detail the wages of the hand-loom weavers, which vary for the most skilled class from 6 to 9 francs per week; for the second rate class from 4 francs 50 centimes to 6 francs; and for women and children, forming the third or lowest class, from 2 fr.

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* 100 centimes make one franc, of 18¾ cents.

to 4 francs 50 centimes. These are net wages; the manufacturers either beaming the warps and furnishing the looms in factories, or paying equivalently. Something more, however, is generally earned in the factories: for the weavers prefer usually working at their own homes. The average net wages of an adult Alsace weaver will not exceed 5 francs, or $2 50 per week; that is, a piece of calico of 70 porters, (French) 28 shots or picks, in a quarter of an inch, is paid about 5 francs the cut of 25 French ells (of 44 inches;) a good weaver will, perhaps, weave five ells per day, including lost time, or 6 francs, gross wages, per week. The homes of the working classes are, for the most part, *dirty, comfortless, and evincing every symptom of bad management, and poverty combined.* Even those who have children in the cotton mills, do not keep up any appearance of comfort. The Alsacian weavers are, however, generally speaking, not without a sufficiency of food, though in all other respects they are certainly ill off. In the mountains of the Vosges, the peasantry are worse off still, and there looms are also found, but chiefly on the system of the "customer" weavers of Scotland, though not exclusively, for there are some who weave for manufacturers at very low wages.

On this subject Mr. Nicholas Schlumberguer, of Guebwiller, an eminent manufacturer, thus writes:—

"On this question it may be said in general, that upon the whole the working class can live much more cheaply in France than in England; and, consequently, the rate of wages is lower in our country than in England. It may also be said, that the working classes are less given to the vice of drunkenness in France than in England; *but they are not moral for all that; their want of prudence is excessive;* they live from hand to mouth, (du jour le jour;) the least illness, or want of work at all prolonged, plunges them into a state of profound misery. They feed themselves *irregularly; their houses are dirty,* which contributes to render their physical state worse than that of the English workmen.

"The moral and physical condition of the working class in general remains nearly stationary; there are made, here and there, efforts for its amelioration which have had happy results."

Lyons is the great seat of the silk manufacture, mostly of figured goods. In the plain goods (articles unis) in which Zurich is very successfully competing with France, little is now done at all in Lyons. This description of goods has been carried (since Dr. Bowring's visit in 1834) almost entirely into the country, where, of course, food and lodging are to be had at much lower prices, and where, as the workmen are more scattered and less able to concert measures for keeping wages up, wages are more easily lowered.

The conflict, however, which formerly existed between the *chefs d'attelier*, (who are the owners of the workshops, containing from one to ten looms,) and their journeymen, called *compagnons*, goes on in the country just as much as it formerly did in Lyons. In the town, much greater harmony subsists, as wages have for the most part risen. It is usual for the chef d'attelier to share the wages paid with the weaver, or compagnon who weaves the web, the former supplying lodging, and upholding the loom, and defraying every contingent expense.

The following are examples of the changes in the rate of payment by the fabricant:—

	1834. Fr. Cent.	1838. Fr. Cent.
Common plain velvets, (per ell,)...............	3 50	5 50
Light plain satins,..............................	60	70
Gros de Naples, fine quality, plain,...............	70	90
Do. light do..............	50	60
Common figured silks,..........................	80	1 00
Rich do. do..........................	1 00	1 50

There are among the figured silks for waistcoats, articles paid for as high as 5 and 6 fr. the ell. There is a new description of shawls, of which the ground is thick satin, with velvet flowers, having the appearance of being embossed on it, of singular beauty and elaborate design, for which as much as 12 fr. per day gross wages are paid to the chef d'atteliers.

If a chef gained 2 fr. clear per day in 1834, he will gain at least 2 fr. 50 cent. now, and the compagnon must be an idle fellow if he earns less than 1 fr. 75 cent. Many earn upwards of 2 fr. per day.

It appeared also that a great *moral improvement* had taken place in Lyons, in consequence of the removal of some of the *lower paid weavers* to the country.

The independence of the weavers of Lyons is very great, and this is caused by the character of the industrial system pursued. The fabricant, of whom there are between 500 and 600 in Lyons, merely gives out the pattern and silk to the chef d'attelier, to whom is intrusted the entire task of producing the web through all the manifold difficulties of the complex operations incidental to the manufacture. The money paid is the object of separate barter, and is generally fixed at joint meetings of weavers and their fabricans. Continual disputes used to occur between them, which are now for the most part transferred to the chef d'atteliers and their compagnons, the latter having become extremely exorbitant in their demands. These form the least respectable class of weavers in Lyons. Having no fixed home they are a fluctuating population, and have neither the stability nor the activity of those who are intrusted with the responsibility, and to whom it imparts respectability. They sometimes, however, amass considerable savings, and occasionally, though not often, establish themselves as chefs d'attêlier.

In addition to the compagnons, or journeymen, there are also apprentices of both sexes to whom the master teaches his trade, either for a sum of money, or a period, during which the profits of the apprentice's labour belong to the master. When they are sufficiently practised in their art, the master gives the apprentices a task to perform, and whatever they do above is their own profit. If they fail in doing it, an indemnity is recoverable by the master.

With the high wages gained by the weavers, they are of course enabled to live well, and spend no inconsiderable sum on the aggregate in their Monday and Sunday recreations. The usual meals, and their cost, of a compagnon or common weaver, are thus accurately stated by Dr. Bowring:—" 1¼ lb. of bread, 30 per cent., or 3*d.* (the pound being 18 ounces, and the best bread;) one-fourth litre of wine, 12½ cent.; dinner, 25 cent.; cheese, 10 cent.; supper, 10 centimes." The dinner will consist generally of soup, and often a bit of meat in it. Rent varies from L. 3 to L. 5 per annum, for two or three rooms. Many of the compagnons are boarded by their employers at about 5d. per day. Hours of work vary from 12 to 15.

The parts of the dirty town of Lyons, in which the weavers are principally located, are close and filthy, especially those lying between the Saone and the Mountains de St. Just and de Fourvières. Many individuals are often crowded together in a small apartment, one room frequently containing the man and his wife, two or three children, and a workman and his wife.

Lyons, however, is peculiarly exempt from epidemic disease, and was wholly free from cholera, though exactly in the line it took in 1832, and built, moreover, on the banks of two large rivers. No doubt it owes this entirely to the large lime-kilns in the suburbs, the exhalation of which perceptibly impregnates the atmosphere; this is thought to be a perfect preventive of cholera.

Tarare, near Lyons, is the chief muslin district of France. A portion of the weavers in the country gain only ¾ of a franc, 15 cents, to 1¼ francs, 25 cents, (1*s*.) sterling, per day; those of the town from 2 to 2¼ francs, 37½ to 45 cents, and sometimes 3 francs, 56 cents, according to their skill. The manufacturer furnishes only the reed and the upper mounting, all the rest being at the expense of the workmen. No deduction is made from the wages for the use of these articles. Those who are in the town weave all the year; those in the country, *at the outside, not above seven months in the year;* the remaining five months being occupied in agricultural employment. It is, therefore, impossible to form any accurate estimate of their real condition, by the mere money wages they receive; for the profits of agricultural occupation render their weaving wages merely an indefinite portion of their total income, which can only be estimated approximately. It may, however, be safely assumed, that a town weaver nets on the average 30 cents per day, and the country weaver 25 cents for 14 hours work.

In Normandy, the wages are very low among hand-loom weavers, who scarcely gain as much as those in the west of Scotland. They are the worst off in France, simply because they are rather more numerous in comparison with the demand for their labor; and the reason why they are so numerous, results from the easy sort of work done in that part of the country. Instead of muslins and silks, as at Tarare, Mulhousen, or Lyons, requiring experienced workmen, and, therefore, limiting the number of those in the field of competition, Normandy produces pullicates, domestics, and other coarser articles. At the same time, whilst the wages of Norman weavers are, if anything, lower than in Scotland, it must not be forgotten, that provisions are at least twenty per cent. cheaper, so that no great difference is perceptible in the condition of the two classes.

The following are the ordinary wages earned in the Norman spinning mills, as furnished by M. Fauquet Lemaitre, one of the leading manufacturers of France:—

Spinners from 15 to 20 francs, $3 to $4 per week, working from 80 to 84 hours. Women and girls, employed at the carding and drawing operations, gain from 7 to 10 francs, $1 37½, to $1 87½. The power loom weavers earn from 12 to 16 francs, $2 25 to $2 50 per week.

Elbeuf is the largest cloth manufactory in France, and is rapidly increasing in the extent of its trade. The weavers here are in very easy circumstances.

"The working classes of our town of Elbeuf, enjoy, in general, easy circumstances. They have always lived happily for two very powerful reasons; the first, because our manufacturers are constantly in their workshops, work themselves with their workmen, know their wants, and identify themselves with all that happens to them, for good or evil; the second, because the price of weaving varies very little; the proportion between times of prosperity and times of distress being 20 per cent. at most, in the amount of wages, and that only in certain departments.

"The work-people are divided into three classes,—the adults, the day laborers, and the weavers.

"The adults receive a salary which varies according to their age, their strength and their intelligence, from 75 centimes to 1 fr. 50 centimes; the largest number receive the average of 1 fr. 10 centimes. Young men, from 12 to 18 years of age, are classed as adults. Children from 9 to 12 gain 50 to 75 centimes per day.

"The day laborers, taken at large from 18 years to 60, are paid from 1 fr. 50 centimes to 2 fr. per day, 1 fr. 75 centimes being the average. This class is not very intelligent.

"The weaver gains from 2 to 3 fr. per day; the ordinary average being 2 fr. 50 centimes. The women receive from 75 centimes to 1 fr. per day; the young girls, from 9 to 16 years old, earn from 60 to 80 centimes. The day's work *begins at five in summer, and ends at eight in the evening; half an hour for breakfast, and an hour for dinner.* In winter they work from 7 to 10 hours."*

At St. Quentin, in the north of France, the working classes make no complaint; they seem all of them pretty well supplied with the necessaries and many of the comforts of life. They are all well clothed, and have plenty of vegetables to eat; little meat is consumed or desired by them. In the country it is a common practice, as in Normandy, for the farmers to give the use of land for planting potatoes; only in the neighborhood of St. Quentin the farmers usually find both seed and manure, receiving half the produce as their share.

The rates paid are as follows, at St. Quentin —

	Fr. Cent.		Fr. Cent.
A spinner, having under him at his own cost, two piecers, earns per day....................	$3 75	to	$4 50
A woman or girl,..................................	0 90	to	1 20
The piecers, (children,)........................	0 60	to	1 00
Power-loom weaver, having two looms,...........	2 50		
Dressers,..	3 00	to	3 50

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* Extract from a letter received from the Mayor of Elbeuf.

"The weavers in the country gain:—Children from 6 to 12 sous, (3*d.* to 6*d.*) sterling per day; the women, from 14 to 20 sous, (7*d.* to 10*d.*) The men from 30 to 60 sous.

"The work people in the town, of all ages and sexes, work 13 hours by day. In the country the hours are not regulated, but they work nearly as much as in the town, especially in winter. Nearly the whole of the artisans are paid by the piece, whether weavers or cotton spinners."*

Day laborers earn from 10 to 12 fr. per week. Mons. Lemaitre is further of opinion, that, though there is "very great distress" among the manufacturers and fabricans, there are very few of the working classes without employment. There is no question that the distress among the latter is confined to the weavers.

The price of food at St. Quentin, generally ranges as follows:

Bread (white) 36 cent. per kilo., or 3½*d.* sterling, for 2⅕ lb. avoirdupois.

Beef (common sort) 55 cent., 5½*d.* sterling per lb. of 18 oz.

Veal and Mutton, 65 cent., or 6½*d.* sterling per lb. of 18 oz.

Pork about the same price.

Rent is high at St. Quentin. A small room and closet costs 11 fr. per month, without furniture. In the country, 3 or 4 fr. per month.

Coal is about 2 fr. 20 cent. the hectolitre.

Roubaix, near Lille, is the most thriving manufacturing district of France.

The articles chiefly manufactured there are Thibets, waistcoat pieces, and thick cotton goods.

There are about 12,000 looms in this district, *of which half are jacquard looms.* These latter are principally in factories; the manufacturers finding it necessary to preserve the privacy of their patterns.

The demand having increased so rapidly, wages have also risen. A weaver will, on the cotton goods, earn on an average 1 fr. 50 centimes, or 30 cents per day; on the second class work from 30 to 40 cents, and on the jacquard loom from 40 cents to $1 00 per day, the average being about 3 francs, or 60 cents; these are gross wages. Net earnings will be weekly about $2 46 or $2 60; 13 fr. for the jacquard weaver, and from 6 to 10 francs, $1 20 to $2 00, for the plain weavers. Women and children obtain plenty of employment at the mills. Wages have risen by above one-third in the last few years.

Wages in most of the other departments of labor (not manufacturing) are, for men, 2 to 3 francs, 40 to 60 cents per day, and for women, 25 cents.

Thibets of woollen weft and warp, 11^{00} 3 shots over, warps No. 22's. weft No. 38's: wages 20 or 22 francs, 17 sols per ell of 44 inches, amounting to about $4 00 or $4 10 on an average per week, out of which the weaver pays for winding weft, and everything but winding the warps. The earnings of the weaver, therefore, on these goods, could not be less than 2½ francs, or 50 cents per day, for 14 hours' work.

In the woollen spinning factory belonging to Mons. Delatre, spinners earn from 20 to 24 francs, $4 00 to $4 25 per week, net. It is by no means uncommon for them to earn 30 francs, $6 00, net. The girls earn about 7½ francs, $1 40 to $1 50 per week; and the children 3 francs, 60 cents per week. They work 15 hours in this mill, and healthier looking people cannot be found in any factory. The rooms are all high, clean, well ventilated, and the machinery extremely good.

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* Mons. Lemaitre.

There are several weaving villages in the north of France, but none of which exhibit any features in the rate of wages worthy of particular note.

At Tourcoing, for instance, the weavers gain about 9 or 10 fr. gross per week; these wages have been augmented by about a tenth, during the last ten years.

The other working classes (adult males) gain from 1 fr. 75 centimes to 2 fr. 25 centimes per day.

The weavers *are the most moral class in this town;* they attend to the education of their children, and seem contented with their condition. The price of food was, last year:—

Bread,	32	centimes, (3⅕*d.*)	per kilogramme	(2⅕lb.)
Meat, 1 fr.	10	do.	do	do.
Coals, 2 "	25	do. (1*s.* 10*d.*)	per hectolitre	of 22 gall.

Rent, average for weavers, 100 fr. (4*l.*)

At *Havre*, the average amount of wages of a male laborer is, in the country, 2 fr. equal 1*s.* 6*d.*, in summer; and 1 fr. 50c., equal 1*s.* 2*d.*, in winter, without food; in towns, it is 2 fr. 50c., equal to 2*s.* a day, all the year.

A laborer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy) earn in a year, 1,000 fr., provided the two eldest children are employed.

The rent of the laborers' habitations, from 50 to 100 fr., equal 2 to 4*l.* a year.

In the south-western provinces,

The wages of an able-bodied male laborer, by the year, amount to		425 fr.
A house and garden is found him, valued at 60 fr. per annum		60 "
In addition to the above sum, he receives four hogsheads of piquette, (a beverage made by pouring water over the residue of the grapes and lees of new wine) valued at	25 fr.	
Wood for fuel, valued at	30 "	—55
Total for the year,		540 fr.

The wages of a day laborer are 1 fr. 50c.

A laborer's wife and four children can earn, by labor, about 300 fr., £12 sterling, $57 60, per annum, viz.:

The wife,	120 fr.
Eldest boy,	80
Child 11 years old,	50
Child 8 do.	30
Child 5 do.	20
Total,	300 fr.

Dr. Bowring, in 1834, collected the following returns :—

In Paris.		Fr. Ct.	Fr. Ct.
Gunsmiths	earn per day	3 50	to 4 00
Jewellers	do	3 50	to 4 50
Toymen	do	3 00	
Capmakers	do	2 50	
Butchers—they are boarded, and may earn from 1,000 to 1,200 francs per annum.			
Bakers	earn per day	4 00	to 4 50
Brewers—they are boarded, and may earn 500 francs per annum.			
Hatters	earn per day	3 00	
Carpenters	do	3 00	to 3 50
Cartwrights	do	3 00	
Shoemakers	do	3 00	
Carvers	do	4 00	
Nailers	do	3 00	to 4 00
Ropemakers	do	3 00	
Cutlers	do	3 00	
Gilders	do	3 50	to 5 00
Cabinetmakers	do	3 50	to 5 00
Tinmen	do	3 00	
Engravers	do	5 00	
Watchmakers	do	3 50	to 5 00
Printers	do	4 00	to 7 00
Do	do	2 50	to 3 50
Masons	do	3 00	
Do	do	2 00	
Marble cutters	do	4 00	
Joiners	do	3 00	to 3 50
Goldsmiths	do	4 00	
Paper makers	do	3 50	to 4 50
Perfumers	do	3 00	
Lacemen	do	4 00	
Pastrycooks—they are boarded, and earn from 600 to 900 francs per annum.			
Paviers	earn per day	3 00	
Plumbers	do	3 00	to 3 50
Plasterers	do	2 50	to 3 00
Porcelain makers	do	3 00	
Soap boilers	do	2 50	
Saddlers and Coachmakers	do	3 50	
Locksmiths	do	3 00	to 3 50
Do	do	4 00	
Stonecutters	do	4 00	
Tailors	do	4 00	
Do	do	5 00	to 8 00
Turners in wood	do	3 00	
Upholsterers	do	3 00	to 3 50
Dyers	do	3 00	to 5 00
Tanners	do	3 50	to 4 00
Do	do	6 00	to 15 0
Terrace makers	do	2 00	
Coopers	do	2 00	
Do. They are also boarded, and get as wages 500 francs.			
Turners in Metal	earn per day	4 00	
Blacksmiths	do	3 00	

With regard to the food of these workmen, the terrace-makers and laborers live very economically, not expending more than from 16 to 17 sous per day. In the morning they repair to the low eating-houses, called Gargotes, where, for 7 sous, they get soup, and a plate of meat with vegetables; their custom is to breakfast on the soup and vegetables, and carry the meat away with them for their dinner.

Thus, these 7 sous, two pounds of bread 8 sous, and perhaps for wine 2 sous, make 17 sous.

The masons, paviers, locksmiths, &c., do not exceed 20 or 21 sous; their only addition to the above being 4 or 5 sous for supper.

Carvers, gilders, saddlers, printers, &c., spend about 30 sous per day; viz., soup and meat for breakfast 7½ sous, dinner 7½ sous, wine at do, 6 sous, two pounds of bread 9 sous. The higher paid artisans spend at least 35 to 40 sous.

In the iron works at Vandelesse, (Nievre) the price of labor is 1 fr. 70c. per day; at Nevers, for manufacture of iron cables, 2 fr.; at Fourchambault, 1 fr. 60c. is the average rate, the workmen in the potteries at Nevers gain 1 fr. 75c. per day; at Nogent, in the manufacture of linen goods, the wages are, to men 2 fr., to women 1 fr. 25c., and children 60 to 90c. per day; at Mouy, in the woollen manufactures, men are paid from 1 fr. to 1 fr. 50c., and boys of fifteen 1 fr. In the Department de l'Aube, the weavers of fine cloth get 1 fr. 75c.; stocking-makers, 1 fr.; cotton spinners, 1 fr. 50c. per day; reelers and winders, 1 fr.; tanners, 2 fr. to 2 fr. 10c. At St. Etienne, the wages paid to the miners are, diggers, 3 fr. 50c.; drawers, 3 fr. per day. At Rieve de Gier, 4 fr. 25c. and 3 fr. 50c.; nailers receive either 7 to 10c. per lb., or from 1 fr. to 1 fr. 50c. per 1,000. *The tenders on silk-worms are paid from 50c. to 1 fr. per day.* Women employed in reeling silk receive 1 fr. per lb.. At the forge of Janon, (Vienne) a master founder is paid 8 fr., a founder 4 to 5 fr., a laborer 2 fr., and a boy from 1 fr. to 1 fr. 25c. per day. At Rieve de Gier, the laboring makers of coke receive from 2 fr. to 2 fr. 50c. per day.

The "Ponts et Chaussées" pay their laborers 36 fr. per calendar month.

The food varies in different districts. Throughout the district called *Landes*, (Heath) occupying about one-third of this department, the food consists in rye bread, soup made of millet, cakes of Indian corn, now and then some salt provision and vegetables, rarely, if ever, butcher meat; their drink, water, which, for the most part, is stagnant.

In the other parts of Southern France the peasantry live better. They eat wheaten bread, soup made with vegetables, and a little grease or lard twice a day, potatoes and other vegetables, but seldom butcher meat; their drink is wine or piquette. A family, composed as above, could lay something by from their gains at the end of the year, as the wants of the lower classes are much fewer than in England; in fact, the luxuries of tea, &c., are quite unknown.

ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROTECTION OF HOME LABOR.

THE following document has been sent to us from the city of Philadelphia; and we are greatly rejoiced to see this incipient measure adopted, with a view to call public attention to this all-important subject.

We say, *all-important*, because it is the subject of all others, which in our estimation should immediately claim the undivided attention of all who desire to perpetuate our free institutions.

Whatever may be the opinions entertained on the subject, of our foreign trade, no one, we think, can doubt that our home labor is infinitely more valuable to us than such trade, even in a pecuniary point of view; yet this is of infinitely less importance than the moral effect which must be produced by suffering the value of labor to fall in this country to the extremely depressed state to which it is reduced in Europe, as we have shown by the accounts we have published.

Societies, therefore, for the promotion of home labor, let it be engaged in what pursuit it may, are, undoubtedly, the very means of all others which should be resorted to, to guard against this enormous evil. The distribution of the property annually created at home among our citizens, so as to keep up the condition of the working classes, to enable them to live in comfort, is, beyond all doubt, the duty above all others imposed upon our legislators.

Let, then, such societies be immediately formed; let them take the best means in their power to examine into this subject, and publish the results of their labor.

We have thought much upon this matter, and without insisting upon the perfect accuracy of our calculations, we throw out, for the consideration of our readers, the following views which have presented themselves.

By referring to volume 2nd. page 911, of this Magazine, it will be observed, that the number of persons, (exclusive of slaves,) engaged in manual labor and professions in the United States, by the census of 1840, was as follows:

Whites,	3,649,390
Free colored persons,	154,990
	3,804,380

If, therefore, we estimate the labor of these persons to average 50 cents per day each, (and doubtless it is more,) the annual amount of their labor for 300 working days in a year, will be $570,657,000.

Now, the mere passage of the tariff of 1846, before it has gone into operation, has caused such a falling off in prices, in anticipation of the increased supply of the products of the cheap labor of Europe, to overstock the American market, that many of our manufacturers have been under the necessity of reducing the wages of their hands from twenty to twenty-five per cent.

We think, from this important fact, that it is within all reasonable bounds to estimate that the total labor of the country will experience a fall of at least ten per cent., and thus take from that portion of our citizens, who have nothing to depend upon but their labor, the enormous sum of fifty-seven millions of dollars, an amount exceeding one half of the whole exports of the produce of the country.

But this is far short of the loss the country must suffer, in the check that will be given to all our mechanical and manufacturing pursuits, which will be paralyzed by the proceeds of the cheap labor imported.

Our mineral treasures, which, under the protection given them by the tariff of 1842, were increasingly coming forth from the mines; our wool, which commanded a high price for manufacture at home; indeed, all our great home interests, will be more or less sacrificed; and all this will take place because the monarchical institutions of Europe keep down the masses of their population, and cheat them out of the fair price of their labor.

This is the real truth, stripped of all the fallacy with which it is enveloped by demagogues. Societies for the promotion of labor are, undoubtedly, the surest and best means of awakening the people to a knowledge of the manifest injustice, resulting from the transfer of the effects of European despotism to the labor of the United States.

As well might we burthen the citizens of the United States with tythes to support an established church—with direct taxes to aid in paying the interest of the national debt of Great Britain, and impose all the other burthens borne in that country, which unite to depress the price of labor, as to import the proceeds of that labor, without sufficient duties, to prevent British goods from so far taking possession of our market, as to overstock it, and equalize the price of our labor to that paid in that over-taxed and overburthened country.

These are truths that it is of the utmost importance to spread abroad among the people of the United States; and we therefore must call upon all the friends of American labor, at once, to unite and form societies for its promotion in every section of the Union.

Much may be done for this great cause, between this and the meeting of Congress in December next, and during its session.

Memorials will, doubtless, be poured into both Houses for a proper modification of the present iniquitous Anti-American labor tariff; and the friends of that labor cannot be too industrious in collecting information of all kinds, to bring the subject properly before Congress.

These are our honest convictions, after an experience of more than thirty years, many of which were passed in England, and various parts of Europe, with a view to examine into the operation of their laws, which so depress the condition of their laborers, as to deprive them of most of the comforts, and some of the very necessaries of life.

That this may be rendered obvious to all, we ask attention to an article in this number of our work, under the head of the "Burthens of the British Laborer."

Referring, therefore, to the following document, we would again, in conclusion, most strongly urge the formation of societies for the promotion of home labor, upon the plan therein suggested.

ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF HOME LABOR.

The system of political economy promulgated in the last annual Treasury Report, and the passage of the "Act reducing the duties on imports and for other purposes," in pursuance of the doctrines contained in that report, presents a new and very important crisis in the public affairs of our country, which demands the serious attention of its patriotic citizens.

It is now openly avowed, that it is both inexpedient and unconstitutional to regulate the duties on foreign imports, for the purpose of giving incidental protection to home labor; and it is even contended that the national wealth is better promoted by importing goods from foreign countries, than by manufacturing them at home!

That these doctrines, however sincerely they may be believed in by their advocates, are wholly fallacious, and in their practical effect, are not only subversive of the best interests of the American people, but in derogation of an essential power of the Constitution, is our firm conviction; and that unless this great political delusion can be dispelled, it may paralyse for ages, if not for ever, a vast amount of the progressive energies and the growing prosperity of our beloved country.

With a view to collect and disseminate information among the people of the United States, on these important matters, it has been deemed advisable to form an association to be denominated "*A Society for the Promotion of Home Labor.*"

The principles of its union and the objects of its action may be found in the following tenets. This society maintains:

1. That the cultivation of the mechanic arts is essential to the prosperity and happiness of every people, to the internal strength, power and independence of every nation, and that it can only be effectively accomplished by concerted action of the people, through the agency of their government.

2. That the powers granted to the government of the United States are to be exercised under the terms of the grants, for the common defence and general welfare; and to deny the existence of any specific grant of power, and refuse to exercise the same, may become an abuse, not less subversive of public justice than the usurpation of powers not granted.

3. That the powers to "*lay and collect duties, imposts,*" &c., and to "regulate commerce with foreign nations," which the States relinquished, and conceded to the general government, confer a clear and unquestionable authority on the latter, to *regulate* the duties (to be laid for revenue) according to its discretion; and consequently in such manner as to encourage and promote domestic labor, and the mechanic arts among the American people. The illustrious founders of our government, and all the wisest and earliest expounders of the Constitution, unanimously adopted this construction of that instrument.

4. That it is essential to the further prosperous advancement of the mechanic arts in our country, as well as the permanent safety of many now partially established, that the impost duties, laid for revenue, should be so regulated as to give the fabrics and productions of American labor a decided preference in the *Home Market*, over those imported from foreign countries.

5. That the proposition asserted in the Treasury Report, that "*No duty should be laid on any article above the lowest rate which will produce the largest amount of revenue,*" can only contemplate such a regulation of duties, as will entirely put an end to the home production of all articles, the like of which can be imported from abroad; as in that event only, the largest amount of revenue duty is ascertainable—being that which will for ever keep down the rival American production.

6. That inasmuch as the aforesaid act of Congress reduces the impost duties, by which the revenues of the Government are confessedly to be diminished, in the midst of the pressing necessities of an expensive war, it is plain that an *ulterior* and not *present* revenue standard is sought, which proves that it is a primary object of policy with the disciples of the treasury report, to paralyze American labor, and substitute foreign in its place.

7. That such a purpose is also clearly proved, by the change in the form of the duties, from *specific* to *ad valorem*, for which no reason can be discovered, except that the latter system offers extraordinary facilities for evading a considerable portion of the duty apparently imposed; whereby a nominal impost in the disguise of 30 per [illegible] in the statute, will fall far below it at the Custom House.

8. That *specific* duties, whenever practicable, ought to be ad[illegible] in preference to ad valorem; because—

They are ascertained by the weights and measures of the Cu[illegible] House, without any danger of evasion or fraud; because—

They *diminish*, while ad valorem duties *increase*, the pernic[illegible] fluctuations in the National Revenue, and all the enterprises of C[illegible]merce, navigation, and manufactures; giving to the latter least [illegible]tection where it is most wanted, and unnecessarily increasing [illegible] price of imported goods, whenever they may happen to rise in [illegible] Foreign Market. Because—

Ad valorem duties are a tax in disguise, of which none can know how much he pays; while by reason of the facilities for evasion and fraud, such temptations to dishonesty and perjury are offered, as must tend to expel honest and conscientious men from mercantile pursuits, and to corrupt those who engage in them. Because—

Ad valorem duties being based on the foreign cost, will enable foreign manufacturing houses, through their agents, to invoice their goods (even when frauds are not intended) at lower rates than an American merchant can purchase for, even from the same houses.

9. That the system of revenue now adopted, and the policy fully disclosed, of using the revenue power to *paralyze American labor and foster that of foreign countries in preference*, is the offspring of a gross delusion, and should be resisted by every constitutional means in the power of all American citizens, who are devoted to the true interests of their country.

10. That the interests of agriculture, manufactures, commerce and navigation, are inseparably connected; and that as the prosperity of each is beneficial to all, all alike deserve the fostering care of the government. But as a parricidal blow has been aimed at one of these great interests, its defence, at this time, demands especial attention, as well for its own safety as for that of all the others. Agriculture

flourishes nowhere so well as in the vicinity of home manufactures, and the farmer can find no market so advantageous to himself as the forge, the furnace, the rolling mill, the coal mine, the spindle and the loom.

For these reasons the members of this association pledge themselves to use all fair and honorable means to collect and diffuse information among their fellow-citizens, as to the true internal policy of the government, and to dispel the delusion which fearfully jeopardizes the hopeful destinies of our beloved country. They also pledge themselves, for the sake of union and harmony in their associated action, to keep a single eye to the issue herein set forth, and to maintain and continue this bond of union until its great object shall be accomplished.

Philadelphia, May, 1846.

DEPRESSION OF ENGLISH LABORERS.

At page 1008, of the second volume of the National Magazine, (April number, 1846,) and extended to page 1023, will be found a pretty full account of the depressed and degraded labor of England, according to Mr. Thornton, in his work on over-population.

Being fully convinced that the introduction of the proceeds of this degraded labor into the United States, at low duties, is virtually to subject our own industrious people to all the evils incident to the bad state of society in Europe, and thus to defeat the very object of our free institutions, we are always desirous to spread abroad such well-established facts as will show the actual state and condition of foreign labor.

With this view, we claim the attention of our readers to the following extracts from a work published in London, this year, written by the Rev. Thomas Milner, M. A., entitled, " The Elevation of the People, Moral, Instructional, and Social."

This work embraces a history of the condition of the people of England, from the Saxon period down to the present time; and we think states many facts that are full of instruction. It is for this purpose we transfer some of them to our pages; and we would that our allotted space for such articles would permit us to give more fully the real state of the laboring classes, in a country whose great prosperity is the theme of almost every writer on subjects connected with political economy.

Of all subjects that can occupy the statesman and the moralist, to say nothing of the philanthropist, we know of none affording more instructive lessons than this, and none which it behooves the American public, more especially, thoroughly to examine.

Certainly, in a national point of view, the progress of English industry, in latter years, has been so rapid, that it is difficult for the mind to realize it; and yet is it a solemn truth, that in no civilized country on earth can a more degraded state of existence be found, than actually exists at this moment, in a large portion of the working classes of Christian England, to say nothing of Ireland, where they are suffered to remain in a state little above the brute creation.

There are, no doubt, many causes combined to produce this state of things, which we have at this time neither space, time, nor inclination to enumerate, much less to discuss. It is the fact, the lamentable fact, to which we would invite the attention of the reader; and in so doing would ask him, if any consideration that could be offered to the citizens of this free country, should induce them to adopt measures which must inevitably produce, to a greater or less extent, the same state of things in the United States?

It is always the wish of the editor rather to be under, than over the mark, in any estimates he may make, or any positions he may assume; and therefore, on this occasion, he would not be understood to say, that such a state of things, as will presently be shown from British testimony, to exist in England, *can* ever exist in this country. On the contrary, we are well aware that there are causes operating in England that cannot operate here; such as the density of her population and the sparseness of ours; and, indeed, others which we need not name. But although our people can never be reduced as low in the scale of degradation as the masses are in England, still they may be *greatly* reduced below the state of comfort to which they are entitled, and to which they have been accustomed; and may suffer as much comparative misery, rendered, indeed, the more acute, from the higher state of sensibility arising from their better moral and physical condition.

With this view, then, it is that we make the following extracts, and would ask their careful consideration.

The great struggle in Great Britain, they will see, is a struggle to sustain life; not in any way to answer the purposes of creation, by a religious or moral exercise of the intellectual portion of their nature, but simply to procure the coarsest food sufficient to enable them to exist.

Mr. Milner, the author from whom we quote, appears to have well studied his subject, so far as he has gone; but as we have said, it is with his facts, more than his opinions, that we have to do; and we must, at least for the present, defer the exposition of his causes and proposed remedies.

Such a state of society as he exhibits throughout England, among the working people, one would suppose could not exist in a Christian land, were it not that the testimony is taken from parliamentary and parochial reports; and that these are the results of investigations taken under authority of the government.

Secretary Walker, in his report to Congress, at their last session, in speaking of the cotton crop, says, "at present prices our cotton crop will yield an annual product of $72,000,000, and the manufactured fabric, $504,000,000, furnishing profits abroad to thousands of capitalists, and wages to hundreds of thousands of the working classes; all of whom would be deeply injured by any disturbance growing out of a state of war, to the direct and adequate supply of the raw material. If our manufacturers consume 400,000,000 bales, it would cost them $12,000,000, whilst selling the manufactured fabric for $84,000,000."

Before we speak of this extraordinary extract in its Anti-American tendency, we must correct a gross error in fact, which it assumes;

and that is, making the American fabrics from cotton, seven times as valuable as the raw material. We are quite sure it is a full allowance to admit them to be four times the cost of the cotton; many think three and a half is as much as they will average; but admitting them to reach four values of the raw material, and the $84,000,000, is reduced to $48,000,000, making a difference in the estimate of $36,000,000. We think that 7 times the value is a full, if not an over estimate for the fine cotton fabrics of Engalnd; and did the calculation at the same rate for the coarser made articles of the country come from any other source than that of the Secretary of the Treasury, we should say it was intentional; but we must excuse an officer of so high a grade, from any thing so dishonorable, and attribute it to his ignorance.

His great fear of producing injury to the profits of thousands of capitalists, and hundreds of thousands of the working classes abroad, in a state of war, however he may think it enhances his claim to philanthropy, undoubtedly impugns his patriotism to an equal extent.

But Mr. Walker is always unfortunate in everything he writes on the subject of political economy; and in this instance as much so as in any other; for it may well be doubted whether playing into the hands of the foreign manufacturer, as he certainly is most anxious to do, at the expense of thousands of capitalists, and tens of thousands of his own fellow-citizens, produces any advantages to the foreign *laborer*, in a proportion as great as it depresses the labor of the United States.

But to return to the depression of the labor of England, we again ask attention to the following extracts from Mr. Milner's book; and we cannot doubt it will at once be admitted to show a state of degradation requiring such a tariff as shall protect American citizens from even an approximation to such an existence, which must certainly come upon them under the principles laid down by Mr. Walker.

Mr. Milner, it will be seen, gives a comparative view of the agricultural and manufacturing districts, which proves the evil to be general, and not in any particular vocation. Indeed, the worst accounts appear to attach to the agricultural districts.

Extract from Mr. Milner's work on the elevation of the people of Great Britain:

HOME ASPECTS.

"The number of children between three and thirteen years of age, is supposed to amount to somewhat more than one-fourth of the population. Making allowance for those sick, subject to casualties, and incidently occupied, it may be assumed that there should be one-sixth of the population, receiving week-day instruction, for society to be in a healthy state. A striking and sad discrepancy, however, appears in relation to our people, between what should be and what is. An inquiry will now be appropriate, into our instructional and moral state, extending to both the adult and juvenile part of the nation. Within the divisions of the metropolitan poor, the town-operatives, the field-laborers, and the mine-workers —we embrace the manual-labor class, constituting the great bulk of the people, who are necessarily dependent upon extraneous aid for the means of right education.

I.

London, which received the metropolitan sceptre from the first Plantagenet upon the fall of Winchester; which has since been ravaged by the three most dreadful of human visitations, famine, fire and plague; more than any contemporary city, except the capital of the Turks, has scarcely felt these disasters in the progress of its aggrandisement, but has advanced to become the largest congregate mass of human life, power, opulence, and art, that ever has existed in the history of mankind. The city of the Cæsars was more powerful relatively, but not positively. Some of the capitals of antiquity covered a larger area, but the number of their people has been extravagantly over-rated. In every point, except that of sculpture and architecture, the metropolis of Great Britain bears away the palm, both from her modern rivals, and the cities of the antique. There are not many, however, of those who annually visit London, and but few of the thousands who spend their days within its bounds, who have any accurate knowledge of its varied features. To arrive at this, there are two persons whose acquaintance must be sought —the policeman and the missionary; else a long and wearisome pilgrimage is necessary, through the regions of Saffron-hill, the courts of St. Giles, and the alleys of Spitalfields.

The year after the battle of Waterloo, a select committee of the House of Commons on the education of the lower orders in the metropolis, reported that they had "found reason to conclude, that a very large number of poor children are wholly without the means of instruction, although their parents appear to be generally very desirous of obtaining that advantage for them." Twenty-seven years of peace have passed away—the children are now the fathers and mothers of children themselves—and what has been done in the interim, towards securing the new race from the disadvantage to which the parents were subject? Old London Bridge has vanished from the site it occupied since the days of Cœur de Lion, to make way for a simpler, statelier structure. The wagoner has been furnished with the means of whipping his team under Father Thames from Rotherhithe to Wapping; and the traveller enters town from the south, by a viaduct over its house-tops, at the rate of twenty miles an hour. But while these physical improvements have transpired, and millions been spent upon their execution, the mental and moral wants of the metropolis have not been overtaken. Mr. Slaney's committee in 1838, like Mr. Brougham's in 1816, in their report say, "they have ample grounds for stating, throughout this vast metropolis, the means of useful daily instruction are lamentably deficient."

In the borough of Marylebone, comprising the parish of that name, St. Mary Paddington, and Pancras, a region of open fields within the memory of man, the population has rapidly sprung up, from 97,642 persons in 1801, to 291,816 in 1841. Several statistical inquiries have been conducted with reference to parts of this district, by visitation from house to house; and in the neighborhood of one of the fashionable squares, in a range of twenty-six houses called Calmell's-buildings, 244 out of 447 parents were found unable to read, and 336 out of 450 children were without any kind of school instruction. In Westminster, the seat of the Legislature, the abode of royalty, the residence of the nobles, within sound of the abbey-chimes, where repose the ashes of the illustrious dead, a large portion of living humanity exists in gross ignorance and vice. The parishes of St. Martin's in the Fields, St. Clement's Danes, St. Mary le Strand, St. Paul Covent Garden, and the district of the Savoy, where the population holds a mean station between the opulence of the west and the poorer localities, gave on examination the general result, that some kind of daily instruction was afforded to one in fourteen of the population, instead of one in six, while that afforded to one-third of the scholars was of an inferior description. In the semi-official pamphlet, published in 1839,* a table occurs respecting the above parishes, and those of St. John, St. Margaret, St. George, St. James, and St. Anne Soho—the city of Westminster—which exhibits more than one-fourth of the whole number of children in instructional destitution. Lord Sandon, one of the Vice Presidents of the London Statistical Society, originated an inquiry in the year 1842, into the moral and physical condition of the working classes, in the inner ward of the parish of St. George, Hanover-square. The result obtained was, that out of a gross number of 2,804 children, 976 of an age to attend school, were not doing so.† In one district in the western part of the metropolis, visited by the agents of the London City Mission, they found 312 houses, 661 families, and 812 children under twelve years of age, only 65 of whom were receiving any kind of education. The same parties have stated generally of 34 districts, that they found many thousands who went to neither day nor Sunday-schools, and that they met with 2,744 adults, who confessed that they could not read a letter.

The agents of the Christian Instruction Society thus speaks of a metropolitan district:

> "There is a district situated near the very centre of the metropolis, on the north side of Holborn-bridge, and to the west of St. John-street, which might be not unaptly compared to Bunyan's Slough of Despond, for here is collected a large portion of the natural and social pollutions that flow from the surrounding neighborhoods; and to those at all acquainted with the topography of London, the names of Field Lane, Saffron Hill, Cow-cross, and Sharp's Alley, present no other ideas, than those of much wretchedness and more vice. This populous mass of streets, courts, alleys, and yards, probably contains not fewer than 60,000 or 80,000 inhabitants. Generally speaking, the people seem to have no higher and no other ideas, than those connected with their servile occupations, and the appetites and passions of their animal nature. With the exception of a more or less imperfect acquaintance with the art of reading possessed by some, it may be said that the march of intellect has never found its way down their narrow lanes and into their straitened dwellings, and that the stream of knowledge has passed by them, without leaving a drop amongst their congregated habitations. Shut up within a labyrinth of brick, they know little or nothing of the works of God in nature, or of the beauties of the creation; the pure air of heaven itself becomes contaminated and offensive before they can inhale it; and no interruption occurs to relieve the miserable monotony of their existence, except what arises from the brutal excitement of a drunken brawl, or the frequent visits of the police in search of offenders against the laws of the realm."

This is not an exaggerated picture. He who wends his way across from Pentonville to Holborn by the nearest routes, will receive an impression of its truth. On three several occasions the agents of the Statistical Society searched the district, without finding a single dame or common day-school. The people, horse-killers, horsehair dressers, and feather-curers, are crowded on an average of twenty-five to a house. The writer of "Ten Thousand a Year," showed his knowledge of the capital, by making Saffron-hill the seat of the firm of Quirk, Gammon, and Snap.

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* Recent Measures, &c., Appendix, Table 1.

† Statistical Society paper, by C. R. Weld, Esq.

The bones of Cocker, the author of a once famous school-book, repose in the parish church of St. George the Martyr, a district celebrated for centuries for its amount of crime and wretchedness, and still containing a large number of untutored adults and children. A section of that parish, called the Mint—the site of a palace and park in the reign of Henry VIII.—now occupied by a congregation of mean and dirty dwellings, was the chief scene of the notorious Jack Shepherd's adventures, and of the equally notorious Wild's. On an inspection of this locality, there were found 3,169 families, and 4,563 children, 521 of whom were receiving some instruction in Sunday-schools, and 4,042 were destitute even of that advantage. In 1839, it was ascertained that out of 3,870 adults examined in the entire parish, 2,327 could read, and 1,542, or 40 per cent., could not read, and 1,218, or thirty-one per cent., possessed no copy of the scriptures.[*]

The condition of a part of London east, was carefully inquired into, in the course of the year 1843, by the agents of the City Mission; and their report is in substantial agreement with that of the Assistant Commissioners appointed by Parliament to inquire into the circumstances of the hand-loom weavers. The district visited, included the parishes of Bethnalgreen and Spitalfields, and extended to a population of 112,141. The result obtained was, a total of 27,823 children of an age to receive instruction; but the appalling number of 16,726 is given as those without the advantage of even a dame or Sunday school. Among the adults, 9,639 acknowledged their inability to read, and 6,075 families possessed no copy of the scriptures.[†] These are deplorable disclosures; especially so, as they show a great and rapid descent in the scale of civilization, when, notwithstanding its many and serious deficiencies, improvement marks the general character of English society. The weavers of Spitalfields were once a decidedly intellectual and religious class, sprung from the Walloons and French, whom religious persecution exiled on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. They had their mathematical, historical, floricultural, entomological, and musical societies. Dolland, the inventor of the achromatic object-glass, and Simpson, who rose to be professor of mathematics at Woolwich, worked at the loom. The societies are gone; and penury and ignorance, with their concomitant, profligacy, are the leading features of Spitalfields.

It cannot be surprising that London should require a strong police force, or that the criminal returns should be so heavy, considering the preceding details. The police are in proportion to the inhabitants, as about 1 to 355, and entail an expenditure for their simple maintenance, of considerably more than a quarter of a million per annum. But large as is the amount of ignorance, vice, and crime, within the bounds of the metropolis, a mere comparison of its amount with a similar record, bearing upon a former period, will betray us into an entirely erroneous conclusion respecting its intellectual and moral status. Positively, the shadows have largely expanded; but relatively, they have diminished. Progressive debasement is the inference that meets us, upon looking solely at the calendar of the morals and manners of the capital year after year; but progressive improvement is the result of a comparison between the calendar and the census—the proper mode of forming a just conclusion. When, about a century ago, the population sensibly diminished, the consequence of dissipated habits checking industry and destroying life, so that the burials were, in one year, seventeen thousand more than the baptisms—when Lords Carteret and Cholmondeley declared in Parliament, that they had seen the people lie insensible in the gutters, on their way to the house—when the Bishop of Salisbury spoke of the sign-posts with the inscription, "You may get drunk for a penny, dead drunk for two-pence, and have clean straw for nothing"—when Hogarth painted his Beer-street and March to Finchley, and neither person nor property was secure from violence in the streets after dark—the metropolis was little more than a quarter of its present size; and obviously, taking the item of an enormously augmented population into the account, an onward course of improvement has been pursued. Still, the statistics of crime and immorality are sufficiently dismal, to call for earnest attention to be paid to the statistics of moral and religious instruction.

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[*] Rev. G. Weight. Statistical Society.

[†] City Mission Magazine, Nov. 1843, p. 173—177.

"The modern Babylon," is the common title of the capital. As was the case with the "lady of kingdoms" by the Euphrates, there are strange discordances, in immediate contiguity, on the banks of the Thames—power and helplessness, wealth and indigence, luxury and misery, learning and ignorance, refined taste and brute vulgarity—the rags of Saffron-hill and the "fine linen" of Regent's-park—the "merchant princes," and those who "grind at the mill." But here the parallel ceases. The modern city has what the ancient city lacked—a knowledge of the means competent to produce a general mental and moral amelioration, and a race of citizens in possession of the resources capable of putting them in action if so disposed. One of the most startling anomalies in the metropolis, is the existence of great physical misery and mental destitution, and pecuniary supplies fully adequate to its relief, and specially designed for that purpose. The income of the trust estates of the city, upon the showing of its own authorities, amounts to £364,000 per annum, representing a capital of twelve millions sterling if invested in the three per cents., as a large proportion of it is—one of the richest inheritances that posterity has ever bequeathed, and left for the relief of the indigent, the cure of the sick, and the instruction of the ignorant; yet the citizens are heavily burdened with poor-rates, are obliged to have recourse to free hospitals and dispensaries for the diseased, maintained by voluntary contributions; have vast numbers of the children of the poor without instructional means, and every winter supplies its cases of destitute persons suffering want and in danger of perishing in the streets. Well pensioned officers, tureens of turtle soup, and civic shows, will perhaps explain the appropriation of a large part of the property bequeathed for charitable objects, and its nonapplication to ills that are hard to bear, within the shadow of Saint Paul's.*

The towns of England may be ranged into three classes, in each of which there is a distinct department of labor for the lower orders, with the peculiar habits which spring therefrom, and respective circumstanstances which in various degrees will exert a favorable or unfriendly influence upon education. There are the outlying towns on the coast, or on the great rivers near the sea, where the chief occupations are connected with maritime life; there are the inland towns in which the gentry and small traders are prominent; and there are those which have a decidedly manufacturing character. Of the former class, Hull, Bristol, and Liverpool, are samples; of the second, York, and Reading; and of the latter, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, and Sheffield. It would appear, at first sight, that intellectual and moral education has to contend with peculiar difficulties in the large maritime and manufacturing towns, from which it is exempt in narrower circles and more placid scenes. That sphere of worldly occupation which is opened in early life, and the easy access to extended association, are the prominent obstacles. Undoubtedly these are real difficulties; but it would be a great mistake to suppose that juvenile labor has been only known at the mill, and alone exists among the whirl of machinery. To assist the parents at their craft, to take an active part in the drudgery of life as soon as capable, to do something by way of earning the bread they eat, is a demand to which the children of the poor are subject, wherever griping, negligent or necessitous parents are found; and whether it assumes the form of keeping house, or carrying tools; whether it calls them to the field or to the factory; it cuts them off as effectually from the discipline of the schoolmaster. Experience also proves, that if the "city full" has influences dangerous to the mind of childhood, so has the village group; while habits of vagabondism and vice are as powerfully recommended by the stagnation of small, as by the stir of large communities. There is a spirit of enterprise and an air of life, pervading the great gatherings of men; a freedom from cramping servility created by association with a considerable number upon the same level, which is favorable to the wholesome developement of the mind if subject to the play and action of wholesome instruction; for want of which, in a more limited sphere,

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* In one respect there is a marked improvement in metropolitan habits. A return made on the motion of Mr. Hume, during the last session, (1844) of persons taken into custody for drunkenness, shows us this. The return is for each year, from 1831 to 1843, distinguishing the metropolitan police district from the city. The maximum amount in the former is found in the years 1831, 1832, and 1833, and the minimum in 1843.

1831	males and females,	31,353
1832	do	32,636
1833	do	29,880
1843	do	10,890

This was to the population in these periods, about 2 1-15th, 2 1-7th, 1¾, and ½, out of every hundred persons. The city proper, exhibits the same gratifying result.

1840	5,113
1843	2,595

Thus, in 1840, there was the enormous proportion of 4 1-10th, out of every one hundred inhabitants taken into custody for drunkenness, and only 2¼th in 1843.

the same machinery will only feebly operate upon a dull and sluggish material. On the other hand, the sharpening of the faculties by the collision of numbers, will work for evil without the guidance and control of wise institutions.

It is folly to assume the alarmist tone respecting the multiplication of town-dwellers, as though it were a deviation in the abstract from the circumstances most suitable for human nature, and must necessarily involve a condition of society specially unwholesome. The gregariousness of man, one of the natural tendencies of his being, is in harmony with the written record of the will of Providence. The possession of "cities to dwell in," was one part of the Divine plan, when the Almighty contemplated the consecration of a people to himself; and assuming the cultivation of the moral and intellectual powers, circumstances specially social are best adapted to their attaining a state of high accomplishment. But an extended company of town-dwellers, adequately furnishing the means of mental and moral discipline, under the influence of which the juvenile mind is placed through the instructional age, is a spectacle which, after six thousand years, the world has still to witness.

Local examinations have clearly established the conclusion, that in the large commercial and manufacturing towns, numbers of the juvenile poor population are apart from the means of wholesome discipline; a fact which is referable to a variety of causes—to the poverty and disinclination of parents, and to an inadequate supply. The British and National schools have offered no instructional provision as yet commensurate with the extent of the need; and the majority of the common day and dame schools, accessible to the child of the operative, are little more than places of confinement, often physically unhealthy, supplying a training which is not instructive, and an example which is frequently pernicious. Of the character and accomplishments of their superintendents, some idea may be formed from the following reports of visitors, which might be largely multiplied:

"In one school, an affirmative answer being given to the question, 'Do you teach morals?' one of the older girls was called up, and the question was put, 'Can you tell me what is your duty to your parents?' she replied with a vacant stare, 'No.' The mistress, a little discomposed, interposed thus, 'No! why can't you say, no sir?' Then, moderating her voice, and apparently perfectly unconscious of the answer being discreditable, otherwise than by the omission of 'sir,' she observed, 'I am sure I take care of their morals, as well as I can; but you see, sir, they are such uncultivated beings, it takes time to learn 'em how to say sir to a gentleman.'"

"One master being asked if he taught morals, observed, 'That question doesn't belong to my school, it belongs more to girls' schools.' With few exceptions, the dame schools are dark and confined; many are damp and dirty. On pointing out to one mistress the unfavorable effect these circumstances must produce upon the children, she replied, 'They thrive best in the dirt.'"

"One master who had stated that he had used the globes, was asked if he had both, or one only; he replied, 'Both; how could I teach geography with one?'"

"One conscientious teacher of a common boys' day-school, an Irishman, being asked if he taught grammar, very candidly answered, 'Faith, and it's I that dont; if I did, I must tache that thing I don't know myself.'"

"One had conscientious scruples about counting her scholars, and said, 'It would be a flat flying in the face of Providence. No, no, you shan't catch me counting; see what a pretty mess David made of it, when he counted the children of Israel.'"

"Such are the week-day teachers of a large number of children, many of whom, however, are reached and benefited by the Sunday-school, in addition to tens of thousands not professedly receiving other instruction.

In the ecclesiastical capital of the north, a return for the year 1843 gives a result of 551 children between the age of six and twelve without week-day instruction, and eighty above twelve unable to read a letter, while dame schools, some of the lowest class, are the only provision for a considerable number. Yet York has two free grammar-shools, with a joint income of more than two thousand pounds per annum, in which the classics are taught gratuitously, a sum sufficient, if properly administered, to provide every poor child in the city with adequate instruction, without extra voluntary aid. The city of Bristol has upwards of 31,000 children from five to fifteen years old, but only 17,138 of that age are found attending all kinds of schools—statistics which refer to the year 1841. In Birmingham there are 45,000 children between five and fifteen, and according to Mr. Grainger's report, only 21,824 were receiving instruction in day and Sunday-shools, leaving 23,176 destitute. Among those returned as under instruction, many were in dame and common day-schools, of which, says the report, "there will be some danger of over-estimating their value, if they are set down as a whole, as representing much more than nurseries where the children of the working class are taken care of." A mistress, on being asked whether she gave moral instruction to her scholars, replied, "No, I can't afford it for three-pence a week." Another observed, that she did not presume to teach morals, but she "strove to *imbibe* good principles into them." Sheffield has a population in the entire parish, of 110,891, and the number of day-scholars is given by Dr. Holland at 10,955, or about one to ten of the inhabitants. He obtained the following answers to queries submitted to one of the most intelligent and enterprising manufacturers, respecting the workmen in the spring-knife manufacture:

"What is the number of workmen in this branch?—Apprentices about 600, and other workmen, make the number about 3,000.

"What proportion of the adults can read?—Not above one-half, and not one fourth moderately well.

"What proportion can write?—About one-fifth.

"What proportion of the boys can read and write?—About three-fifths can read; one-fourth can write."*

The joint population of Manchester, Salford, and Bury, was 331,092 in 1841, and Mr. Baines' statistics give 30,885 day scholars in 1843, which gives a proportion to the population, allowing for its increase in the interval, of one to eleven. The case of Liverpool, though in process of amelioration, is more unfavorable than that of any of the great towns, in an intellectual, moral, and physical point of view, as might be expected from the modern growth of its vast population, and its mixed national character. Some years ago, Mr. Wamsley estimated the amount annually realised as the wages of crime, including the receipts of prostitution, and the gains of theft, at seven hundred thousand pounds. A sub-committee of the town council was appointed to examine this statement, and they reported the conviction, that the immense sum was not exaggerated.* In 1842, there was in the borough alone 770 houses of ill-fame, with 2,899 prostitutes known to the police, at an annual expense to the public of £200,000.

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* Vital Statistics of Sheffield, by G. C. Holland, Esq., M. D. p. 181.

From the reports of statistical societies and other evidence, we are not warranted in supposing the proportionate number of children receiving week-pay instruction in the great towns of England, to be more than one to ten of the inhabitants. But discounting for irregular attendance would largely lessen the proportion of pupils to population. It is not to be inferred from hence, that this is the whole amount of weekday instruction,—that only one in every ten of the inhabitants receives it, but simply, that this is the proportion at a given time. Instead of remaining at school through the instructional age, from three years old to thirteen, the great mass of the children do not average a third of that period. Consequently, there may be double or thrice the number stated who pass some portion of time in day-schools. The sore evil is the short time, and inferior nature of the schooling. There is no training to habits of industry, no tuition of the moral faculties, no sense of the power and dignity of mind evoked, in the majority of the schools accessible to the humbler classes of society; and for want of this, the little mechanical knowledge imparted is received as a burden, of which the child is rapidly relieved altogether, as soon as he enters into life. The remark of Dr. Vaughan is no doubt true, "that the instruction given in Sunday-schools, defective as it may be in some respects, is more valuable in its influence on the children of the humbler and laborious classes in England, than the whole of the instruction obtained by them from other sources."† Still Sunday-schools ought not to be the mainstay and dependence of British children, but their helpmates merely. Young life, in all situations, to be prepared to act wisely and well in mature old life, wants other provision beyond hebdomadal institutions. Especially in a country like this, where the struggle for existence is frequently so severe, the child of poverty has no fair chance of contending with the difficulties he will have to grapple with, without a previous habitual discipline. Deprived of this, the probability becomes great, through failing mental and moral energy, that the burthens of his lot will bear him to the gulf of crime or pauperism. But man has too often acted an ostrich part towards his species, and then hurled his anathema, or doled out his sentimentalism, to the vice and misery he has himself been an agent in creating!

In comparing the towns of England with each other, we must not only have respect to the census in order to "judge righteous judgment," but to history and the collector of assessed taxes. A case of ignorance, failing the means of instruction, may be really more discreditable in one locality, than five hundred such cases in another, because of time having afforded an ampler space for the establishment and development of improving social institutions. Leland speaks of Liverpool as "a chapelry or hamlet of the parish of Walton: the king," continues he, hath a castalet there, and the erle of Darbe hath a stone-house there; good merchandise at Lyrpool, and much Irish yarn that Manchester men do bye there,—at Lyrpool is small custom paid, that causeth merchants to resort." Birmingham had no market a century and a half ago; and Sheffield was comparatively insignificant till its continental trade commenced. Of the towns in the cotton district, some date their existence, and all their populousness, from a very recent period. But Canterbury was a royal residence when Augustine landed with his monks. Chester sent forth citizens against the Cambro-Britons in their fights with the Saxons for independence. York was the seat of Roman emperors; and the stronghold of ecclesiastics when some of the early councils of Christendom were held. Ought equal fruit to be expected of the modern creations, formed by a pell-mell rush of people for the "meat that perisheth,"—Ashton, Bury, Preston, Wigan, and Rochdale,—as of the long settled and antique? The immense preponderance also of operatives in the factory towns demands due consideration, in every representation of their state. A district where the laboring class is in the proportion of 94 per cent. to the whole population, cannot obviously, with any fairness, be put into competition with the centres of agriculture, where the bulk of the inhabitants are either traders in respectable circumstances, or those connected with the gentry who, at eve's approach, with

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* Constabulary Force Report, p. 18.

† Vaughan's Age of Great Cities, p. 177.

"plumed and jewelled turban—
Now stir the fire, and close the shutters fast,
Let fall the curtains, wheel the sofa round,"

to gossip, flirt, and pass their time at cards. If Canterbury visits with reproach the ignorance that abounds in Oldham, the latter town may refer to a majority of unaffluent, hard-working artisans—may show that the same characteristic does not belong to the archiepiscopal city, and yet point to the besotted multitude beneath its walls, who reposed faith in the mad Thom as the second Messiah, in the year of grace 1835.

The moral condition of the operative classes, especially of those employed in factories, confessedly presents features to occasion shame and regret; but as unquestionably many writers upon this subject have painted more from fancy than fact—have attributed evils to the factory system, which cannot be substantiated by evidence, or which are found proportionably just as rife in districts which have not been invaded by machinery and steam. The mill is a living representation of Pandemonium—a Pandora's box, containing naught but plague and pestilence, according to the statement of a host of modern sentimentalists. Thus the anonymous author of the Perils of the Nation remarks,—"Vice and demoralization reign unchecked in these establishments. No rule is abolished by a few exceptions; we admit that such exist, but we fearlessly challenge inspection of the mills and factories throughout the land, upon this point . . . . . This, then, is the all-but-universal characteristic of a factory—the laborers consist of persons of both sexes and of all ages, from the hoary transgressor whose experience in the craft compensates in the employer's sight for the diminution of his bodily strength, and whose long experience in iniquity renders him no less effectual in Satan's service,—down to the little child that cannot yet attach a meaning to the foul expressions that its ears drink in. These persons form the element in which they live,—an ocean of reckless, raging profligacy, prepared to overpower and engulf every new victim cast upon the surface of the bottomless abyss."* Mr. Alison also writes as follows:—"The strongest impulse is thus given to a diseased and frightful increase of population; the habits of the working classes of both sexes run into incessant sensual enjoyment: early marriages or more frequently bastards are universal."† Now, we have only to reflect, how important it is to the pecuniary interest of mill-owners to check vicious and disorderly courses, out of which spring the plunder of property and neglect of work, to surmise that the preceding statements are not the words of truth and soberness. The surmise is fully confirmed by the testimony of disinterested practical men. A government inspector of factories in the great cotton district, Mr. Leonard Horner, thus speaks of the masters: "I know of no description of persons, of whom so many instances may be brought forward of active benevolent exertions and large pecuniary sacrifices to promote the welfare of the people they employ;" and, inviting a personal inspection of the work-people, he declares, of some alarmists, "they would then see how greatly they have erred in their general condemnation of what they call the factory system, and how much virtue, intelligence, comfort and happiness are to be found among the workers in a well-regulated mill." That all mills are not well regulated, is a truth which applies to every thing human, but that the great majority are, is a point for which we have some security in the sure concomitant of its neglect—an eventual bankruptcy.

The truth of Mr. Alison's representation may be tested by figures obtained from returns made to parliament. In the three years, 1839, '40, '41, there were three illegitimate children born to a thousand inhabitants in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and rather more than three in Lancashire, while in agricultural Norfolk and Hereford there were nearly six to the same number. So much for the extraordinary prevalence of illegitimacy assigned to the factory districts. The allegation also, of the sexes running into incessant sensual enjoyment, and stimulating a diseased and frightful increase of population, the consequence of factory association, is directly in the teeth of evidence, for the agricultural counties take the lead in improvident marriages, Bedford and Hertford having more marriages of persons under twenty-one years of age than Lancashire or York.‡ The preceding remarks are not meant to convey the impression that there is no appalling amount of vice and ignorance to be found in the manufacturing districts. On the contrary, the evidence of its existence is ample, and both political prudence and religious enlightenment demand its prompt and vigorous assailment. But on the other hand, the assertion is advanced, that both in instruction and morals, the busy scenes of commercial and manufacturing activity, may be brought without disadvantage into comparison with the pastoral districts. Among the factory operatives employed under W. Grant, Esq., at Ramsbottom, only one case of female misconduct had occurred in the space of twenty years, and that was a farmer's daughter.*

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* Perils, pp. 29, 30.

† Alison on Population, i. 531

‡ Report on Occupations of the People.

The dissolution of the Roman empire, and the spread of Christianity, introduced a new feature into the distribution of society in Southern and Western Europe—the rise of a village population. However much the pastoral poetry of Virgil might be admired by his countrymen, they were not so smitten with the charms of sylvan scenery as to form for a permanence, rural locations. Italy was a country of towns without intermediate villages; and Gaul, Spain, and Britain, under the Roman dominion, presented a similar aspect. The soil was tilled in their neighborhood, but the farmholders were town-dwellers, large compact bodies, and not sprinkled over the surface in small groups. The feudal system, and the spread of monarchism, altered this arrangement, and created a number of petty communities in the before unoccupied wastes. A baron went out into the forest, and built his castle on his patrimonial property, or a religious house arose in the solitude. Gradually an aggregation of cottages belonging to dependents upon the lord or the abbot appeared in the neighborhood; the cottiers enclosing crofts, and pushing, by slow and almost imperceptible steps, cultivation over extensive districts. The tendencies of trade and commerce point to a reversion to the Roman arrangement, at least to an approximation of the modern to the ancient distribution of society, many villages having become towns through the influence of manufactures, and small towns having risen to be vast municipalities.

This change is symptomatic of national degeneracy in the apprehension of a class of poetasters; and regarded as identical with a transfer from simplicity of heart and purity of manners, to discontent, insubordination, and profligacy. There are not a few to whom the only ideas suggested by the village-green, the walks, and maypole, are those of innocence and pleasantry, who cannot conceive otherwise of the inhabitants of a hamlet, who have never come into contact with the "gay and flaunting town," than as industrious, moral, and contented; happy and affectionate in their domestic relations; obedient to the laws, not from constraint, but from good will.

> "The hind
> Who delved, or jocund drove his team afield,
> ———————— content though poor.
> He was the village monitor; he taught
> His children to be good, and read their book;
> And in the gallery took his Sunday place,—
> To-morrow, with the bee, to work.
> So passed
> His days of cheerful, independent toil." †

The impression has largely prevailed that a pure and polished humanity must needs be associated with pastoral scenery, with the green turf and shady groves, through which

> "The river wanders at its own sweet will."

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* Dr. Ure, Economy of Manufactures, p. 416.

† Days Departed, by Rev. Canon Bowles, p. 35.

The idea has not, perhaps, originated with the beauty of external nature, or with the classic page of Theocritus, though both have contributed to strengthen its hold upon the mind, but may be primarily referred to the sacred narrative of the Eden of unfallen man—its trees pleasant to the sight—its river gushing into the streams, Pison, Gihon, Hiddekel, and Euphrates. The illusion vanishes as human nature is studied in the scenes which invest it with a fictitious charm to the careless observer.*

The mean proportion for three years ending June 30th, 1841, of men and women signing with marks the certificate of marriage in England, is exhibited in the following table:

Counties arranged according to the education of the men.	Mean proportion per cent.		Counties arranged according to the education of the men.	Mean proportion per cent.	
	Men.	Women.		Men.	Women.
Cumberland	16	36	Chester	36	62
Westmoreland	19	33	Somerset	37	48
Northumberland	19	39	Northampton	37	52
East Riding of York	19	41	Hereford	39	43
York North Riding	23	42	York West Riding	39	64
Durham	26	49	Lancaster	40	66
Devon	27	41	Berkshire	42	45
Kent (except Greenwich)	29	40	Bucks	43	54
Gloucester	30	43	Salop	43	54
Sussex	31	41	Norfolk	44	50
Dorset	31	41	Wiltshire	44	56
Derby	31	50	Stafford	44	61
Surry (part)	32	35	Huntingdon	46	54
Middlesex (part)	32	36	Cambridge	46	56
Hants	32	39	Worcester	46	61
Rutland	33	26	South Wales	46	69
Warwick, Mean of England and Wales	33	49	Suffolk	47	53
Leicester	33	51	Essex	47	55
Lincoln	34	47	North Wales	47	70
Nottingham	34	53	Hertford	51	56
Oxford	35	44	Bedford	52	65
Cornwall	35	54	Monmouth	52	66†

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* John Wesley seems to have no great love for rural life, and the agricultural class. "In the little journeys," says he, which I have lately taken, I have thought much of the huge encomiums which have been for many ages bestowed on a country life. How have all the learned world cried out—

> 'O, fortunati nimium, bona si sua novint,
> Agricolæ!'

But, after all, what a flat contradiction is this to universal experience! See the little house, under the wood, by the river side! There is rural life in perfection. How happy, then, is the farmer that lives there! Let us take a detail of his happiness. He rises with, or before the sun, calls his servants, looks to his swine and cows, then to his stable and barns. He sees to the ploughing and sowing his ground in winter or in spring. In summer and autumn he hurries and sweats among his mowers and reapers. And where is his happiness in the meantime? Which of these employments do we envy? Or do we envy the delicate repast that succeeds, which the poet so languishes for?—

> 'O quando faba, Pythagoræ cognata, simulque
> Unita satis pinqui ponentur oluscula lardo!'

Oh, the happiness of eating beans well greased with bacon; nay, and cabbage too! Was Horace in his senses when he talked thus? or the servile herd of his imitators? Our eyes and ears may convince us there is not a less happy body of men in all England than the country farmers. In general their life is supremely dull; and it is as usually unhappy too; for, of all people in the kingdom, they are the most discontented, seldom satisfied either with God or man."

† Fourth Report of the Registrar-General, 1842, p. 21.

Thus of 100 men married in Cumberland, only 16 signed the register with marks, 19 in Westmoreland, 19 in Northumberland, 19 in the East Riding of York, 23 in the North Riding; while there were 46 in Cambridgeshire, 46 in Worcestershire, 47 in Suffolk, 47 in Essex, and 52 in Bedfordshire; a difference so striking, as to prove some great disparity between the respective counties as to instructional advantages. The difference will be more apparent if put as follows:

In Cumberland,	84	men out of 100	can write.
In Westmoreland,	81	do	do
In Northumberland,	81	do	do
In York East Riding,	81	do	do
North Riding,	77	do	do
In Cambridgeshire,	54	do	do
In Worcestershire,	54	do	do
In Suffolk,	53	do	do
In Essex,	53	do	do
In Bedford,	48	do	do

These returns elucidate the instructional condition of those counties where the poorer classes are chiefly field-laborers or connected with agriculture, as compared with the manufacturing districts; and from them it appears, that the West Riding of York and Lancashire are far in advance of almost exclusively agricultural Essex and Hertford.

The north division of England appears to the greatest advantage in the registrar's tables, including Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Northumberland. The nearer the Tweed, the more intelligent and moral the peasantry. "The chief cause of this," says a document submitted to the Poor Law Commissioners, "arises from the education they receive at the schools scattered about the country. In these schools, independent of higher branches of knowledge being taught than is usual, the Bible is the grand school-book; which being read in early life, its precepts are valued, retained, and acted upon. In many cottages, besides other religious books, expensive commentaries on the Bible are found, particularly Matthew Henry's; public places of worship are steadily frequented; and the whole population, dressed in a very superior style of clothing, are every Sunday seen flocking towards them, and form a beautiful and animating scene."* "What I saw of the northern peasantry," remarks Sir John F. Doyle, one of the commissioners on the employment of women and children in agriculture, "impressed me very strongly in their favor: they are very intelligent, sober, and courteous in their manners; their courtesy, moreover, is not cringing, but coupled with a manly independence of demeanor; added to this, crime, as I was told, and as indeed from the annals of the northern circuit, I was previously aware, is all but unknown in agricultural Northumberland."† "Religion," observes the commissioner, "in this province, is Scotch in spirit, and indeed usually in form also." The hinds of Northumbria are mostly Presbyterians, and travel several miles on the Sunday morning to their meeting-houses. They are generally located on the farms they cultivate, in cottages belonging to the proprietors, the rent forming part of their wages, which are also paid part in kind, and they are bound to find

* By J. C. Blackden, Esq., of Ford Castle, Northumberland.

† Report on the employment of women and children in agriculture, 1843, p. 299.

a female laborer to work, when necessary, for a stipulated sum. This is that remnant of serfdom, against which Cobbett wrote in his latter days, and though it cannot be called slavery, being a voluntary annual agreement, the employment of the bondwoman in field labor is here, as in other districts, a cause of frequent demoralization. The north Northumbrian peasant is, however, the best specimen of his class. "I would say," observes Mr. Gray, a magistrate of the county, "that of the population (the parish of Millfield,) brought up within the last twenty years, there is not one who cannot read and write."

The southern agricultural districts present a striking contrast to the northern. The unlettered state of the farmers, and those who acted as overseers of the poor, was frequently remarked by the revising barristers and visiting Poor Law Commissioners with surprise, in the early discharge of their official duties. Of Devonshire, Mr. Charles Villiers, M. P., who visited that county in both capacities, observed: "I might venture to state that one-fourth of the overseers could not write; some lists were made out without any attention to the simplest requisites of the act, others without signatures at all; and the apology which was constantly offered by others for them, as well as by themselves, was that they were no scholars, and that it was not to be expected that persons in their station of life would perform the duty better."* In Herefordshire, with a cathedral city for its capital, the moral and intellectual cultivation of its human occupiers, as a point of general interest, lags far behind the improvement of its breed of cattle. Not many years have elapsed since an extensive personal examination, conducted by the Auxiliary Bible Society, revealed the fact, that out of 41,017 individuals visited, only 24,222 were able to read. There is little harmony either between the beautiful physical features of this locality and the moral character of its inhabitants. Hereford is one of the lowest of the English counties in the scale of morals. The parliamentary return of the number of illegitimate children born in the year 1830, gave 234 in this district. This was in proportion to the average number of other children born in the same year, as one in thirteen. No other county in England showed a greater amount of this species of demoralization, only two other counties the same amount. The proportion in the West Riding of Yorkshire was one to eighteen. Notwithstanding the provisions of the new poor law since, but a very slight improvement has taken place of this pastoral district. At the instance of Mr. Stuart Wortley, in the session of 1843, a return of the illegitimate children, registered in the three years 1839, '40, '41 was ordered. It gives 681 for Herefordshire. The proportion is that of six to 1000 inhabitants, while the same return shows only half the numbers for the West Riding of Yorkshire, and Lancashire. The criminal tables exhibit likewise a consecutive increase in the number of commitments, in each of the last seven years.

A variety of causes has contributed to produce the deficiency in elementary instruction which marks the agricultural laborers as a class. The master of a village school is often either a tyrant, wielding the birch of his ancestors with unabated British vigor, causing the lads, like

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* Appendix to Poor Law Report, A. No. 23, p. 50.

Job, to curse their day, or an inveterate idler, anticipating the intervals of manumission from a hateful bondage, in order to renew his sauntering in the chief seats of hamlet gossip. Many a boy has passed from the care of such a schoolmaster as Washington Irving describes Ichabod Crane—that haunter of sunny banks and gentle streams—answering to the portrait of the accomplished scholar drawn in Tickel's lines on the Horn-book:

> "The aged peasant on his latest bed,
> Wished for a friend some godly book to read;
> The pious grandson thy known handle takes,
> And (eyes lift up) the savory lecture makes;
> 'Great A,' he gravely reads: the important sound,
> The empty walls and hollow roof rebound;
> The expiring ancient reared his drooping head,
> And thanked his stars that Hodge had learned to read!"

The wretched character of the country schools—the interruption to which the schooling is subject during the busy months of summer—the apathy, not to say hostility, which has been the farmer's attitude, with reference to the elements of mental cultivation—the general opinion that a boy will never become a useful laborer who does not early learn his business—the ignorance of parents of the use and value of instruction when the means are afforded, but more than all, the struggle for subsistence—these have helped, one or another, to render the tillers of the soil, in many districts, the slaves of brute passion, or more commonly, a race of animated clods, however national predilections may lead us sometimes to boast of having the finest peasantry in the world. Who that has travelled the by-paths of England, its grassy lanes, and has not encountered at some closed gate a drove of urchins eager to open it, who have been posted there for hours in expectation of the chance passengers' pence? Their next occupation, at seven, eight, or nine years old, is to watch cattle on the common, or to scare the birds from seed just sown or ripening, where

> "They stroll, the lonely Crusoes of the fields."

Then come potato and bean planting, driving horses or oxen at plough, and regular farm servitude, interrupted by an occasional pilgrimage to fairs and statutes. Such is the common course of the youthful peasant. He learns a manual occupation. His physical energies are all called forth. He hears something of Lunnon, and th' Mericas. But he has learned little of his duties to God or man; and the exclusive physical training to which he has been subject, becomes a barrier in the way of the evangelist who, in after life, would teach him. Without bodily activity he is inert. Dozing comes on when he sits down at night. The sermon at church sends him fast asleep. In the leisure of the Sunday he leans over the stiles, or plays at quoits; and thus, without mental furniture and moral discipline, should temptation present itself, or distress pinch, he is in jeopardy of being hurried into those crooked paths which ultimately recruit the ranks of felony and pauperism.

There is reason for Wordsworth's inquiry:

"What kindly warmth from touch of fostering hand,
What penetrating power of sun or breeze
Shall e'er dissolve the crust wherein his soul
Sleeps, like a caterpillar sheathed in ice?
This torpor is no pitiable work
Of modern ingenuity: no town
Or crowded city may be taxed with aught
Of sottish vice, or desperate breach of law,
To which in after years he may be roused.
This boy the fields produce;—his spade and hoe—
The carter's whip that on his shoulder rests,
In air high-towering with a boorish pomp,
The sceptre of his sway: his country's name,
Her equal rights, her churches and her schools—
What have they done for him? And let me ask,
For tens of thousands, uninformed as he?"

The four assistant commissioners appointed under the powers of the Poor Law Act to make a special inquiry into the employment of women and children in agricultural districts, published their report in 1843. Mr. Vaughan, who took the counties of Kent, Surrey, and Sussex, remarks: "Great ignorance, if it does not prevail, is at least to be met with, where no special pains are taken to discover it. It is quite common to meet with boys engaged in farms who cannot read or write. The unity of God, a future state, the number of months in the year, are matters not universally known. These instances, not occurring in neglected districts, but in large villages and in the agricultural population near towns, show not only that there are those who do not seek education, but they are the persons to whom the ordinary knowledge and convictions of society do not find their way, unless imparted by the regular method of school-teaching, and who, in consequence, if they do not obtain such direct instruction, are not taught and humanised by the numerous influences which act upon others."*

Taking the kingdom generally, for the past quarter of a century, the crimes attended with personal violence, whether caused by rapacity or vindictive passion, have been decreasing, while those have increased, which are characterised by fraud, perhaps in a greater ratio. The exchange is in itself an improvement—a sign of a less barbarous age, the latter class of crimes being divested of the animosity and physical injury which belong to the former. The offences against the person are chiefly rural, and those against property are civic. As to moral restraint evinced in the intercourse between the sexes, the pastoral has not the advantage of the factory population.

Before the change in the administration of the poor laws, Mr. Brereton, a clergyman, in his work on that subject, tells us of a part of Norfolk, where there were seventy-seven births in a given period, of which twenty-three only were legitimate—an act of profligacy, nothing like a parallel to which has ever been exhibited in the history of the factory race.† Truth has grievously suffered from exaggeration, no less so than from detraction; and no instance of the former has been more general, than those views which, from immemorial time, have been in circulation, respecting the morality and refinement of the country *versus* town. Rural scenes cast a false yet attractive coloring over the phasis of rural life. The woodlands have perhaps been traversed beneath a sky without a cloud. The eye has reposed with delight upon all the diversity of hill and dale, clothed with every variety of verdure, from the tender blade to the foliage of the wide-spread oak. The stream has gently prattled, and presented to the heavens a surface without spot and blemish; and the visitor, yielding to the fascination, without any sinister design, has transferred the image of material beauty to the phenomena of human life. The reality of things has thus been obscured, and a vision created, just as to Mirza, the Elysian islands hid the long hollow valley of Bagdad. But the enduring interests of humanity require the attention to be fixed upon true representations; and facts deal out a stern contradiction to the conceptions of fancy, respecting the superior morality and happiness of the pastoral races. Crabbe, adhering to the former, gives a different description of the village to Oliver Goldsmith. Tried by the reports of government commissioners, those scenes of content and social comfort which orators in parliament have pronounced the domains of agriculture, are found with a fair proportion of two-roomed cottages, nine in the family, seven shillings wages, commanding the luxuries of burnt crust tea. Examined by the returns of the House of Commons, the Barnsley weaver and the Lancashire factory girl, in intelligence and morality, take precedence of shepherds and shepherdesses.

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* Report, &c., p. 153.

† Brereton on the Administration of the Poor Laws, p. 50.

MR. WALKER ON AGRICULTURE,

With Table of the Agricultural Products of 1845, *from the Report of the Commissioner of Patents.*

At page 13 of the famous report of Secretary Walker to the last session of Congress, (Document No. 6, House of Representatives, Treasury Department,) we find the following:

"We have more fertile lands than any other nation, can raise a greater variety of products, and, it may be said, could feed and clothe the people of nearly all the world. The home market of itself is wholly inadequate for such products. They must have the foreign market, or a large surplus, accompanied by great depression in price, must be the result. The states of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, if cultivated to their fullest extent, could of themselves raise more than sufficient food to supply the entire home market. Missouri or Kentucky could more than supply it with hemp; already the state of Mississippi raises more cotton than is sufficient for all the home market; Louisiana is rapidly approaching the same point as to sugar; and there are lands enough adapted to that product in Louisiana, Texas and Florida, to supply with sugar and molasses nearly all the markets of the world."

The Secretary of the Treasury, in the quotation we have made above, displays his usual ignorance, of the best interests of the United States; and we now propose to show how, if he believed his own statement, he has in the Tariff of 1846 taken the very measures to defeat these interests, as he has here laid them down. The idea that "we can feed and clothe all the world," is ridiculous in the extreme. As well might he say, we can furnish all the world with iron and coal, because our iron and coal mines are inexhaustible.

The truth is as plein as day, that Mr. Walker always leaves out of his calculations the most important elements of our national wealth, namely, labor, and the facilities of transportation.

Of what consequence is it, that "the states of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, if cultivated to their fullest extent, could of themselves raise more than sufficient food to supply the entire home market?" Will their capacity in land to raise it, ensure its being raised, until their population shall be sufficiently dense, and their means of transportation be such as to enable them profitably to do so? Nay, if the principles of the Tariff of 1846 are carried out, will there be any demand for the agricultural produce of those states in the home market? If Mr. Walker could extend his views over the whole Union, he would know that the states of New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia, can also raise grain enough to supply the entire home market. The present population of these states, and the quantity of wheat raised, estimated in the tabular statement of the crops, which we annex, is as follows:

States.	Population.	Wheat produced in 1845.	
New-York	2,626,000	16,200,000	bush.
New-Jersey	409,000	1,050,000	"
Pennsylvania	1,960,000	12,580,000	"
Maryland	485,500	4,884,000	"
Virginia	1,255,000	11,885,000	"
	6,735,500	46,599,000	"

The estimated population and the crop of wheat from the same table is, in

States.	Population.	Bus. wheat raised.
Ohio	1,760,000	13,572.000
Indiana	860,000	7,044,000
Illinois	722,000	4,563,000
	3,342,000	25,179,000

Now the population in the five Atlantic states is about twice as much as the three western states named, and the amount of wheat raised, nearly in the same proportion; while the other sources beside agriculture, of national wealth in these states were, in 1840,

In	New-York	$85,531,192
"	New-Jersey	13,462,573
"	Pennsylvania	62,552.731
"	Maryland	11.234,891
"	Virginia	17,683,211
		$190,464,598

In	Ohio	$26,104,667
"	Indiana	6,284,888
"	Illinois	5,280,529
		$37,670,084

These statistics are taken from Professor Tucker's work on the Census of 1840, and we confidently appeal to them to show the folly of looking to the western states for large quantities of grain for home consumption at this time, because they have good land enough to produce it. We freely admit that the United States can raise more grain than will supply both the home and foreign demand; for in seasons of usual crops, in Europe there will be no demand, which Europe cannot and will not supply. The present failure of the crops to a considerable extent on the continent, and the disease in the potato, have just now created an unusual demand; but this demand will not continue; and if our western brethren build their hopes upon it, they will be egregiously disappointed.

The more grain we can grow in the United States, the worse is it for Mr. Walker and his principles; for if the time shall ever come that these three states can supply the home market, what is to become of the five Atlantic states we have named, if we are to import all our manufactured articles from Europe. The consumption of these articles in the United States cannot be less than $300,000,000 at this time; and long before Ohio, Indiana and Illinois can raise grain in the quantities anticipated, that amount will be doubled. Then Mr. Walker's theory is, that we must find a foreign market for $600,000,000 of agricultural products, to pay for $600,000,000 of manufactures to be imported from Europe.

Can anything be more absurd than the idea that such a state of things can ever exist, or that even now we can with our cotton, rice, tobacco, grain, &c., pay for the $300,000,000 we now consume in manufactured articles.

We now import some 50 or $60,000,000 of foreign manufactures, on an average, and all our experience proves, that when we extend it 15 or $20,000,000, it disarranges our currency and paralyzes the whole industry of the Union. So much for Mr. Walker's theory on agriculture. He is, however, still more absurd in what he says in the extract we have quoted, about the supply of other articles from the other states he has named. Missouri and Kentucky are to supply the world with hemp; Mississippi, the home market with cotton, while Louisiana, Texas and Florida, are to raise sugar for all mankind.

The extract we have quoted is so ridiculous that we have scarcely patience to waste our time with it; and yet, coming, as it does, from a Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, we are induced to notice it, to show its extreme folly; and furthermore, to keep before the public eye the fact, that it is not the mere possession of land that can produce any result to advance the prosperity of the country. The great ingredient in all production is labor, and the most profitable employment of that labor, is what a real statesman should make his highest aim; and not as Mr. Walker does, ransack his ingenuity to find specious fallacies, to sustain systems and legislation to deprive it of its reward. Kentucky, he tells us, is to supply the home market with hemp, while he strikes a death-blow at its production, by reducing the duty on cotton bagging. Louisiana and the other states named, are to supply the world with sugar, and to aid in this, he reduces the duty on foreign sugar, to destroy the sugar planters.

So, in every instance, while he writes documents full of high-sounding expressions, and magnificent anticipations for the future, he is doing everything he can to arrest present progress, and consequently to prevent the fulfillment of his wonderful "Munchausen" speculations.

But our present object is to place on record the approximate tabular estimate of the crops for 1845, taken from the Report of the Commissioner of Patents, (document No. 140, House of Representatives, last session of Congress.)

From those tables, we have condensed the two following tables, giving an estimate of their value, so as to show what amount is consumed at home, and what shipped abroad. By the first, it will be seen that the amount exported of the several articles included in the table from the Report of the Commissioner of Patents, is $68,949,771, and that of these, $61,369,918 were in cotton, rice and tobacco, while the whole balance of these articles exported from the non-planting states is $7,579,853.

Now suppose the states of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois to furnish the home market, with the remainder, after deducting the $68,949,771 from the whole value of that market, as shown in the second table, then the three western states would have a market for $377,155,657, and all the other states would be left no other outlet for their farming productions but the foreign demand, or $7,579,853.

Examine Secretary Walker's report in any manner or form, and the result will always prove, that he sees scarcely anything but the planting states. The middle and eastern states may get along as well as they can. Pennsylvania and Maryland, with their coal and iron, and their manufactures, are, in his view, of no consequence, neither does he care about New-York and the eastern states.

How short-sighted must that man be, who believes that he can hoodwink the intelligent freemen of the middle and eastern states, constituting more than one-half the population of the country, by stringing together a parcel of high-sounding phrases, displaying the most thorough ignorance of what constitutes the real national wealth.

In publishing the table from the Report of the Commissioner of Patents, and his remarks, we take occasion to, say, that the document this year is very full of important and valuable information; and though the table we now publish, is only what it professes to be, an approximate statement, it is such statements alone we can ever have, and being probably not far from the truth, it must prove interesting to our readers.

Exports for the year ending 30*th June,* 1845.

Wheat,	$336,779
Flour,	5,398,593
Indian Corn and Meal,	1,053,293
Rye Meal,	112,908
Rye, Oats, and other grain,	177,953
Ship bread,	366,294
Potatoes,	122,926
Rice,	2,160,456
Tobacco,	7,469,819
Cotton,	*51,739,643
Sugar,	11,107
	†$68,949,771
Deduct Cotton, Rice and Tobacco,	61,369,918
Exports of non-planting states,	$,7,579,853

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* This includes part of a previous crop.

† The total amount of the annual produce of the agriculture of the United States, in 1840, according to Professor Tucker, was $654,387,597
Exported same year, ... *92,525,339
Home market, ... $561,862,258

* The exports in that year were very large, far beyond the annual average of agricultural productions.

Estimated value of articles in table.

	Quantity.		Per bushel.	Amount.
Wheat,	106,548,000		at 75	$ 84,951,000
Barley,	5,160,600		50	2,580,300
Indian Corn,	417,899,000		30	125,369,700
Oats,	163,208,000		20	32,641,600
Rye,	27,175,000		50	13,587,500
Buckwheat,	10,268,000		40	4,107,200
Potatoes,	88,392,000		25	22,098,000
Hay,	14,065,000	per ton	$6	84,390,000
Flax and Hemp,	37,500	do	$100	3,750,000
Tobacco,	187,422,000		3	5,622,660
Cotton,	936,088,000		6	56,171,128
Rice,	89,765,000		2	1,795,300
Silk Cocoons,	486,500		..	....
Sugar,	226,026,000		4	9,041,040
Amount according to the table,				$446,105,428
Exported of these articles,				68,949,771
				$377,155,657

REMARKS ON THE TABULAR ESTIMATE.

In presenting the following tabular estimate, it may be proper, in order to prevent mistake, to repeat what has been stated in the former reports of this office—that no claim is laid to complete accuracy. All that has been attempted has been merely to furnish an approximation, which, although in particulars sometimes rising above, and at others falling short of the actual state of the crops, might still serve, in general, for want of better materials, the purpose of comparison, and form some basis for calculations, in gross, respecting the agricultural resources of our country. To hope to accomplish anything beyond this, with the means at command at present, would be a vain undertaking. Yet it is believed that the grounds on which the estimate is made, with a readiness at all times to correct errors, and an increasing preparation of experience in the use of the materials, will aid essentially in giving more reliable accuracy. Those who will candidly review the history of the crops, as it has been collated from notices made on the spot, and mark the causes at work to affect them, it is presumed will admit, for the most part, the justness of our conclusions; and to such it is unnecessary to state the extreme difficulty of arriving at an estimate which will satisfy those who choose some easier method of decision. Various methods have been proposed for reaching the desired object; but, in the absence of an actual census, no better mode than the employment of similar data, yet more extensively gathered and perfected by comparisons, appears to us practicable.

Some writers in the public journals seem to place great reliance on the amount of wheat brought to the Atlantic ports, and claim that this is the truest test of the increase or decrease of the crop. While we admit that this is an important element of computation, and as such is ever regarded in our estimate, it is doubted, however, if this alone is sufficient. The comparative decrease or increase of the other crops in the place where such product is raised, may often exercise an important influence to modify such a calculation. If one product, on which reliance has been placed for feeding the stock, has been cut off, resort must be had to another; and the degree of such consumption may thus very essentially vary the surplus left for the market; so that, though the amount of wheat raised in the western States may be actually greater or less, as the case may be, the amount brought to the Atlantic ports may be less or greater, according to a variety of other circumstances irrespective of production. The demand in the way of trade, therefore, is only one of the many things to be considered. The greater previous stock remaining; the greater ease of placing the surplus of any year in market; the kind of payment received; the ease and expense of preparation for use at any given period, with a variety of other circumstances, must tend not a little to modify the amount received at the nearest place of exit, or at the remoter markets. So that the amount passing any lines of transportation, or entered at any office, will not by itself give the correct data for an approximation to an accurate estimate.

In using the various elements on which estimates are made, reference must likewise be had to the ability, from experience or means of observation, of the informant, his freedom from bias, and the absence or presence of extraneous causes which may operate to influence his judgment. It is obvious, therefore, that it is no easy matter to sift out and discriminate the true from the false, and thus form, by a series of deductions, a result which may have some pretensions to be regarded as founded on correct principles of judgment. Such means, however, as are within our reach, have been resorted to, and, with all necessary deductions, they have been employed to secure, as far as practicable, a candid view of the whole state of the case.

The amount of materials collected during the past year exceeds that of any former year; though we still have to regret, that, on account of no answers to some of the circulars for information, the means for estimate in some sections is less complete than it might otherwise have been. A greater number of the public journals and agricultural papers, both at home and abroad, have been carefully examined, and such information as they contained collated and arranged in such a manner as to form a history of the crops through the season. The advantage of this plan is apparent, as it enables any one to judge, from one period to another, of the causes influencing the staple crops of the country, and affords, in some degree, a criterion by which to arrive at the more correct conclusion as to the amount raised.

In consequence of a census of population in four States, we have been enabled to correct our table of estimated population. These are New-York, Michigan, Illinois, and Georgia. In New-York, directions were likewise given to the marshals to collect the amount of the principal crops raised during the preceding year. These statistics have been procured from the office of the secretary of the State of New-York, and have been made the basis of our estimate for the year 1845. The same has been done, so far as any such data could be obtained, in the case of the other States.

The disinclination of many to communicate the amount of the products of their industry on such occasions, induces a belief that such an estimate will oftener be found to fall below, than to exceed the actual amount of the crops so raised. Allowing this cause to operate to some degree, it would tend to approximate our former estimate considerably nearer to the statistics reported on such official authority.

In most cases it has been deemed advisable to give only the round numbers, leaving the fractional parts. This cause sufficiently shows the comparative product, and is as likely as any other to be accurate.

The progress of agricultural knowledge is steadily onward. States are turning with deeper interests to providing means for encouraging the farmers and planters in their respective limits; surveys of the soil and various products are set on foot; and thus, much valuable information is elicited. Men of science are devoting themselves to the illustration of the principles of agriculture, as a science founded on careful experiment. New journals are every year established, and numerous volumes published, designed to convey to the husbandman, planter, and grazier, the orchardist and the dairyman, the results of investigations at home and abroad. Agricultural societies and farmers' clubs are greatly on the increase; and the numbers who attend their exhibitions, and take a part in their deliberations, shows the deeper interest which is every where awakened in securing the benefit of these auxiliaries, to the correct and profitable arrangement and development of the agricultural industry of the country.

Some advances are likewise making towards the introduction of this science as a subject of common school education and instruction in primary schools, as well as in the establishing of institutions more expressly designed for this particular purpose. No subject is receiving more earnest attention, in all the various periodicals and volumes adapted to the agricultural class, than is that of manures; and the applications of chemical and geological science to this object are daily becoming more important and useful.

New enterprise, too, has recently been directed towards the improvement of stock, by the importation and crossing of breeds, and particular care to note their adaptation to the different sections of the country.

Every year introduces, likewise, to the agriculturists, some additional implement by which his labor is lessened, or better done; and, while he is thus saved somewhat of the sweat of his brow, he is likewise assured of greater profit from the fruits of his industry. There is, thus, mutual dependence as to the pursuits of the farmer and those of the artisan. Mechanical industry presents him with the results of her inventive genius. With these in hand he forces from the earth her increase, and, by the blessing of a kind Providence, is enabled to pour out to the community around him a lavish of nature's bounties, such as no other country can so universally boast. In view of his own improved tools and means of culture, he may well wonder how his fathers, and even himself, formerly, could have been satisfied with the ruder ones which have been so long in use. We are, however, but at the commencement of these better things.

The researches of each successive year, and the multiplied facilities, added to the train of conveniences enjoyed, authorize the belief that the advancement of agricultural industry is destined far to exceed any that has yet been seen.

There is no want of adaptation of soil, or of fertility, or of means of industry, or of bone and sinew of free yeomanry, who may enjoy the fruits of their own labor; and, as an increasing population spreads far and wide over the whole face of the land, its abundance, under the smiles of Heaven, will ever suffice for both the native born and for the emigrant, who, from foreign shores, seeks an asylum from the oppression which starves him and grinds him to the dust

Even the evils which attend the greater or less failure of some important crop, as in the present year has, to some extent, been the case with the potato crop, are not without their good effects; insomuch as they will call forth scientific investigation, observation, and practical industry, to determine and apply the remedy, and thus often throw new light on the true theory of germination or progress. More care will probably be taken in selecting seed, in cultivating the soil, and in storing the crop; new varieties may be secured; and the still greater failures, which might otherwise have taken place, thus be prevented. Some of these observations, in general, will receive yet fuller illustration in the future consideration of the specific crops as they come under our review.

We are not, too, without our resources, even in the case of the more permanent unproductiveness of some particular crop. The history of our country, and the wide extent and variety of soil and climate, enable us to turn our attention from one thus failing to another, and in many cases new products may thus become introduced and acclimated among us. To any one who may live a half century hence, the comparison in this respect may be a striking one. Fields blooming with some plant now scarcely known may then frequently meet the eye, and afford promise of a rich harvest to repay the enterprise and skill devoted to its culture; and the octogenarian of those days may possibly find, but few and far between, the patches of some fruit of the earth, which he was wont in his boyhood to see, frequently wide spread over his native soil.

As commerce and enterprise open to us the vast empire of China, and the interior of South America, it would not be surprising if there should be discovered there products well adapted to sections of our own country; but which are as yet unknown among us. It should, therefore, be an object to keep a lookout for every thing which may tend to benefit the agricultural industry of our country; and even if the boon is gained by the price of numerous fruitless experiments, yet success may often reward diligence and patient effort to accomplish the end.

By a reference to the report of the Commissioner of Public Lands, we learn that 1,754,763 acres have been sold during the past year. Now, although we can by no means assume that all of this, or even the greater portion of it, goes under cultivation at once, it still must be supposed that a part of it must add to the amount devoted to agricultural supply in the States where it is located; and this item deserves notice in forming our estimate of its products.

The same may be said with respect to the amount of increased population from emigration. The number of emigrants from Great Britain and European countries generally, to the United States, is believed to have been greater during the past year than in the previous one, when it amounted to from 80 to 100,000; a portion of these, no doubt, engage in agricultural pursuits, and thus have some influence, not only on the consumption, but also the production of the crops.

Tabular estimate of the Crops for 1845.

No.	State or Territory.	Population in 1840.	Present estimated population.	No. of bushels of wheat.	No. of bushels of barley.	No. of bushels of oats.	No. of bushels of rye.	No. of bushels of buckwheat.	No of bushels of Indian corn.
1	Maine	501,973	575,500	502,000	273,000	1,564,000	185,000	69,000	1,912,000
2	New Hampshire	284,574	291,500	647,000	123,000	1,942,000	425,000	154,000	1,828,000
3	Massachusetts	737,699	817,000	241,000	162,000	1,856,000	594,000	126,000	3,098,000
4	Rhode Island	108,830	120,000	5,000	51,000	200,000	47,000	4,000	731,000
5	Connecticut	309,978	320,000	114,000	26,000	1,646,000	1,010,000	444,000	2,649,000
6	Vermont	291,948	298,000	854,000	51,000	3,593,000	321,000	300,000	1,728,000
7	New York	2,428,921	2,626,000	16,200,000	3,574,000	23,700,000	3,560,000	3,347,000	13,250,000
8	New Jersey	373,306	409,000	1,050,000	8,500	4,912,000	2,934,000	900,000	7,314,000
9	Pennsylvania	1,724,033	1,960,000	12,580,000	141,000	19,826,000	11,929.000	3,322,000	17,126,000
10	Delaware	78,085	79,000	440,000	4,500	828,000	53,000	13,000	2,713,000
11	Maryland	470,019	485,500	4,884,000	2,700	1,691,000	944,000	109,000	3,723,000
12	Virginia	1,239,797	1,255,000	11,885,000	84,600	8,888,000	1,441,000	....	27,272,000
13	North Carolina	753,419	760,000	1,969,000	3,600	2,673,000	217,000	....	14,887,000
14	South Carolina	594,398	600,000	1,168,000	3,600	700,000	48,000	....	8,184,000
15	Georgia	691,392	784,000	1,571,000	11,800	833,000	64,000	....	13,320,000
16	Alabama	590,756	660,000	980,000	7,200	1,527,000	76,000	....	16,650,000
17	Mississippi	375,651	586,000	378,000	1,800	1,189,000	21,000	....	2,167,000
18	Louisiana	352,411	440,000	....	....	....	2,000	....	8,360,000
19	Tennessee	829,210	910,000	8,340,000	5,500	8,625,000	384,000	26,000	70,265,000
20	Kentucky	779,828	835,000	4,769.000	15,400	13,091,000	2,548,000	14,000	54,625,000
21	Ohio	1,519,467	1,760,000	13,572,000	219,600	24,447,000	798,000	950,000	57,600,000
22	Indiana	685,866	860,000	7,044,000	35,200	13,902,000	221,000	73,000	30,625,000
23	Illinois	476,183	722,000	4,563,000	101,200	12,957,000	143,000	99,000	25,584,000
24	Missouri	383,102	540,000	1,525,000	11,000	5,466,000	81,000	19,000	15,625,000
25	Arkansas	97,574	140,000	2 427,000	900	436,000	12,000	....	8,250,000
26	Michigan	212,267	320,000	7,061,000	197,200	4,815,000	77,000	260,000	4,945,000
27	Florida	54,477	60,000	....	....	8,000	....	....	733,000
28	Wisconsin Territory	30,945	100,000	971,000	20,000	1,200,000	5.000	25,000	672,000
29	Iowa Territory	43,112	115,000	793,000	25,000	681,000	8,000	14,000	2,028,000
30	District of Columbia	43,712	54,000	15,000	....	12,000	7,000	....	35,000
31	Texas	....	100,000	....	....	....	....	....	....
		17,069,453	19,602,500	106,548,000	5,160,600	163,208,000	27,175,000	10,268,000	417,899,000

Tabular estimate of the Crops for 1845—Continued.

No.	State or Territory.	No. of bushels of potatoes.	No. of tons of hay.	No. of tons of flax and hemp.	No. of pounds of tobacco.	No. of pounds of cotton.	No. of pounds of rice.	No. of pounds of silk cocoons.	No. of pounds of sugar.
1	Maine	8,613,000	1,877,000	....	....	....	....	944	300,000
2	New Hampshire	3,714,000	526,000	....	....	....	....	1,210	2,200,000
3	Massachusetts	3,038,000	530,000	....	123,000	....	....	47,110	500,000
4	Rhode Island	650,000	46,000	....	....	....	....	1,250	....
5	Connecticut	1,694,000	458,000	....	794,000	....	....	220,000	50,000
6	Vermont	4,926,000	1,139,000	....	....	....	....	13,740	10,000,000
7	New York	21,986,000	3,703,000	....	....	....	....	7,850	14,500,000
8	New Jersey	1,757,000	282,000	....	....	....	....	6,240	....
9	Pennsylvania	5,497,000	1,527,000	....	535,000	....	....	41,370	1,600,000
10	Delaware	155,000	19,000	....	....	....	....	5,500	....
11	Maryland	705,000	56,000	....	17,920,000	6,000	....	10,240	....
12	Virginia	1,899,000	296,000	....	30,218,000	2,412,000	2,500	9,260	1,700,000
13	North Carolina	2,711,000	67,000	....	10,373,000	40,000,000	3,000,000	8,850	9,000
14	South Carolina	2,520,000	16,000	....	40,000	45,000,000	66,500,000	7,620	30,000
15	Georgia	1,536,000	13,000	....	195,000	205,000,000	14,500,000	8,430	350,000
16	Alabama	1,635,000	15,000	....	341,000	145,000,000	280,000	7,890	12,000
17	Mississippi	3,040,000	1,000	....	198,600	235,000,000	975,000	300	....
18	Louisiana	1,299,000	26,000	....	....	185,000,000	3,800,000	1,570	175,000,000
19	Tennessee	2,256,000	42,000	1,500	37,109,000	48,000,000	9,000	30,110	520,000
20	Kentucky	1,508,000	123,000	22,500	63,310,000	1,200,000	17,000	6,970	2,100,000
21	Ohio	4.120,000	1,251,000	500	7,576,800	....	....	39,370	3,900,000
22	Indiana	2,680,000	1,351,000	500	3,520,000	....	....	1,150	8,000,000
23	Illinois	2,631,000	297,000	500	1,168,000	270,000	....	4,680	600,000
24	Missouri	875,000	77,000	12,500	13,744,000	200,000	....	290	450,000
25	Arkansas	642,000	1,000	....	....	17,000,000	6,500	300	5,000
26	Michigan	4,555,000	214,000	....	....	....	....	1,900	3,000,000
27	Florida	255,000	1,000	....	260,000	12,000,000	675,000	590	750,000
28	Wisconsin Territory	938,000	84,000	....	....	....	....	40	300,000
29	Iowa Territory	516,000	26,000	....	....	....	....	....	150,000
30	District of Columbia	41,000	1,000	....	....	....	....	1,500	....
		88,392,000	14,065,000	37,500	187,422,000	936,088,000	89,765,000	486,530	226,026,000

STATE OF THE BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES.

We have just received from Washington, Document No. 226, House of Representatives, Treasury Department, being a report from the Secretary of the Treasury, of the returns of the State banks from 1841 to 1846. It was presented to the House August 10th, 1846, read and laid upon the table.

This is a very voluminous document, numbering 1261 pages, and we have only had time to glance at its statistics. It is our intention to give it a careful examination, and we may find matter for future comment. Meantime we publish the following tables of a comparison of the condition of the banks, as likely to possess interest for our readers, and would call attention to the fact of the increase in the amount of specie in their vaults, after the tariff of 1842 had fairly taken effect. From 1842 to 1846 there is shown, in the specie line, an increase from $28,440,423 to $42,012,095, making a difference of 13,571,672, in favor of the latter year. While, in the intermediate years, it had gone on increasing, except in the year 1845, when it fell off rather more than $5,000,000, from the previous year.

The advocates of protection to the home industry have always contended, and facts have borne them out in their assertion, that other things being equal, a protective tariff had a tendency to preserve a sound currency. The tables we now insert, form no exception to this view of the subject, and we appeal to the comparative statement of the condition of the banks, in confirmation of it.

We are aware, that in the extreme anxiety to bend everything to the new theory of Free Trade, and to make that an abstract science, which is in the main dependent upon the most changeable of all earthly mutations, namely, the ever varying relations in which one nation may be placed towards another; we are, we say, aware that the new system denies that there is any such thing as a balance of trade, or that specie follows an unfavorable trade, going to pay balances. But in this, as in all others, of their sweeping assertions, the most striking facts are at hand to refute their fine spun theories and abstractions.

We have only to revert to the accounts given of the state of the Bank of England, to show that whenever the grain crop of that country has fallen very short, and they have made heavy importations of grain from the continent of Europe, the amount of bullion and specie in that bank always diminishes in proportion to the value of the supply of grain required. What is this but an unfavorable balance of trade? Germany and Russia, the principal granaries from which England in such cases is supplied, cannot consume British manufactures in sufficient quantities to pay them for the grain needed; the balance due must therefore be paid in specie, and, as we have said, facts prove that it is so paid.

On a recent occasion, such was the drain of specie from the vaults of the Bank of England, that had not the Bank of France made a loan to it of some millions of dollars, there is no doubt a suspension of specie payments by the former would have been inevitable.

Having thus stated our views, we ask reference to the following tables as fully sustaining the ground we have taken.

A general statement of the condition of so many of the banks as have made returns dated near January, 1846.

State or Territory	Date.	No. of banks.	No. of branches.	Capital.	Loans and discounts.	Stocks.	Real Estate.	Other investments.	Due by other banks.	Notes of other banks.
Maine	Oct. 1845	35	..	$2,884,000	$5,014,200	..	$217,235	..	$1,118,159	$192,789
New Hampshire	June, 1845	19	..	1,587,488	2,768,730	..	36,155	..	527,624	100,397
Vermont	Aug. 1845	17	..	1,138,360	2,314,929	..	60,323	$33,389	359,492	68,723
Rhode-Island	Oct. 1845	61	..	10,244,370	13,714,255	192,763	252,490	25,890	671,878	395,425
Massachusetts	Nov. 1845	104	..	30,970,000	52,648,729	..	1,097,969	..	4,902,907	3,010,113
Connecticut	May, 1846	32	2	8,409,544	13,031,865	250,124	366,956	268	1,416,893	276,758
New-York	Feb. 1846	150	..	42,956,489	75,555,335	11,150,464	3,629,471	313,536	10,181,286	8,503,174
Pennsylvania	Nov. 1845	46	1	14,871,837	28,912,133	2,784,654	1,429,780	1,643,591	2,660,625	2,097,973
New-Jersey	Jan. 1846	26	..	3,596,048	6,017,262	88,818	387,887	21,644	1,006,738	307,409
Delaware	Jan. 1846	3	3	890,000	1,550,821	27,753	86,265	..	226,454	75.404
Maryland	Jan. 1846	4	2	1,155,505	1,648,954	72,389	60,217	..	317,973	73,477
District of Columbia	Jan. 1846	1	..	448,100	700,992	14,000	41,033	..	77,238	37,914
Virginia	Jan. 1846	6	26	10,336,085	16,368,166	1,051,411	1,050,188	58,471	1,540,590	455.172
North-Carolina	Dec. 1845	3	15	3,225,000	4,688,514	..	117,000	10,332	663,861	439,909
South-Carolina	Jan. 1846	9	2	11,036,260	14,181,772	1,618,297	424,272	130,877	1,103,446	249,084
Georgia	April, 1846	8	4	6,519,404	6,063,337	810,254	3,677,683	10.730	769,435	426,850
Alabama	Jan. 1846	1	..	1,500,000	2,194,916	55,400	142,296	..	424,685	25,197
Louisiana	April, 1846	6	22	17,528,910	21,582,744	..	3,539,871	4,446,127		
Tennessee	Jan. 1846	2	12	4,809.999	6,224,544	630,682	807,244	..	520,466	280,824
Kentucky	Jan. 1846	4	13	7,119,160	11,061,733	579,200	561,941	8,750	1,536.484	714,028
Missouri	Jan. 1846	1	5	1,200,582	2,958,495	..	136,015	..	47,899	
Indiana	Nov. 1845	1	12	2,087,894	3,721,805	37,000	348,170	626,333	..	84,188
Ohio	Feb. 1846	31	..	4,364,421	7,963,404	1,249,573	371,359	158,008	1.374,240	1,031,865
Michigan	Dec. 1845	5	1	815,697	1,024,693	17,085	217,356	46,520	241,573	41,421
Wisconsin	Jan. 1846	1	..	224,475	58,789	..	48,824	379,125	..	26,329
Total				189,919,628	301,971,135	20,629,867	19,099,000	7,913,591	31,689,946	12,914,423
Banks of Baltimore	Jan. 1846	11	..	6,974,681	10,143,269	856,967				
Total				196,894,309	312,114,404	21,486,834	19,099,000	7,913,591	31,689,946	12,914,423

A general statement of the condition of the banks—*Continued.*

State or Territory.	Date.	No. of banks.	No. of br'ch's	Specie funds.	Specie.	Circulations	Deposits.	Due to other banks.	Other liabilities.
Maine	Oct. 1845	35	..	..	$205,568	$2,216,380	$1,304,100	$79,873	$150,733
New-Hampshire	June, 1845	19	..	..	136,871	1,124,531	696,492		
Vermont	Aug. 1845	17	..	..	109,137	1,400,617	261,837	25,988	
Rhode-Island	Oct. 1845	61	..	..	283,379	2,670,306	1,407,466	623,561	117,012
Massachusetts	Nov. 1845	104	..	..	3,357,904	14,339,686	11,668,132	5,046,120	1,083,218
Connecticut	May, 1846	32	2	..	481,832	4,565,466	[illegible]	362,128	
New-York	Feb. 1846	150	..	$6,370,372	8,361,383	20,926,930	[illegible]	14,843,359	1,495,343
Pennsylvania	Nov. 1845	46	1	1,680,760	4,181,067	10,029,366	[illegible]	3,218,779	58,682
New-Jersey	Jan. 1846	26	..	..	584,960	2,394,371	1,822,364	192,619	900
Delaware	Jan. 1846	3	3	..	[illegible]	611,449	373,506	30,815	
Maryland	Jan. 1846	4	2	..	245,926	483,645	690,171	33,262	
District of Columbia	Jan. 1846	1	..	..	119,70[illegible]	147,425	301,992	50,414	
Virginia	Jan. 1846	6	26	..	2,487,421	7,762,694	3,848,242	273,152	39,713
North-Carolina	Dec, 1845	3	15	..	1,261,061	2,954,578	639,507	67,199	10,432
South Carolina	Jan. 1846	9	2	..	1,723,561	3,911,360	2,353,168	980,190	61,989
Georgia	April. 1846	8	4	..	1,122,378	2,907,778	1,370,205	306,355	932,707
Alabama	Jan. 1846	1	..	..	1,165,272	1,445,90[illegible]	935,164	37,443	9,421
Louisiana	April, 1846	6	22	..	6,636,394	4,206,748	9,449,035		
Tennessee	Jan. 1846	2	12	..	921,856	2,425,999	760,476	252,087	17,554
Kentucky	Jan. 1846	4	13	..	2,624,132	6,064,431	2,018,191	1,175,077	133,565
Missouri	Jan. 1846	1	5	185,736	1,453,614	2,195,840	1,296,428	37,858	
Indiana	Nov. 1845	1	12	..	1,079,368	3,527,351	402,067	76,437	
Ohio	Feb. 1846	31	..	143,910	1,249,485	4,504,130	3,038,747	505,647	853,439
Michigan	Dec. 1845	5	1	5,700	139,772	362,828	294,890	205	266,864
Wisconsin	Jan. 1846	1	..	..	95,967	213,479	129,636	..	
Total				8,386,478	40,150,595	103,393,287	93,799,320	28,218,568	5,331,572
Banks of Baltimore	Jan. 1846	11	..	..	1,861,500	2,159,140	3,113,750		
Total				8,386,478	42,012,095	105,552,427	96,913,070	28,218,568	5,331,572

NOTE.—In this table are embraced, it is believed, all the specie-paying banks in the country, except—

	Reputed capital.
Delaware—Banks of Wilmington and Brandywine	$201,100
Union Bank of Delaware	300,000
Maryland—Washington County Bank	112,482
South-Carolina—Bank of South-Carolina	1,000,000
Commercial Bank of Columbia	800,000
Merchants' Bank, Cheraw	400,000
Tennessee—Planters' Bank and 7 branches	1,850,400
Farmers' and Merchants' Bank, Memphis	563,400
Total	5,237,382

There are six banks in the District of Columbia, but they are not recognised as legal institutions.

Synopsis of the condition of all the banks in the United States, near the commencement of each year, from 1834 *to* 1840, *inclusive.*

	According to returns dated nearest January 1,						
	1834	1835	1836	1837	1838	1839	1840
Number of banks from which returns have been received	406	515	559	632	663	662	719
Number of branches from which returns have been received	..	141	146	154	166	178	182
Number of banks, the affairs of which have been estimated for want of returns	100	43	8	2	..	..	4
Number of branches, the affairs of which have been estimated for want of returns	..	5	..	..	..	..	2
Whole number of banks and branches in operation	506	704	713	788	829	840	907
Capital paid in	$200,005,944	$231,250,337	$251,875,292	$290,772,091	$317,636,778	$327,132,512	$363,629,227
RESOURCES.							
Loans and discounts	324,119,499	365,163,834	457,506,080	525,115,702	485,631,687	492,278,015	474,133,199
Stocks	6,113,195	9,210,575	11,709,319	12,407,112	33,908,604	36,128,464	43,124,895
Real estate	10,850,090	11,140,167	14,194,375	19,064,451	19,075,731	16,607,832	26,976,779
Other investments	1,723,547	4,642,124	9,975,226	10,423,630	24,194,117	28,352,248	26,413,782
Due from other banks	27,329,645	40,084,038	51,876,955	59,663,910	56,195,153	52,898,357	48,623,320
Notes of other banks on hand	22,154,919	21,086,301	32,115,138	36,533,527	24,964,257	27,372,966	22,672,299
Specie funds	26,641,753	3,061,819	4,800,076	5,366,500	904,606	3,612,567	3,379,806
Specie	..	43,937,625	40,019,594	37,915,340	35,184,112	45,132,673	35,207,690
LIABILITIES.							
Circulation	94,839,570	103,692,495	140,301,038	149,185,890	116,138,910	135,170,995	116,572,790
Deposites	75,666,986	83,081,365	115,104,440	127,397,185	84,691,184	90,240,146	76,573,582
Due to other banks	26,[illegible],293	38,972,578	50,402,369	62,421,118	61,015,118	53,135,508	45,935,406
Other liabilities	..	19,320,475	25,999,234	36,560,289	59,995,679	62,946,248	43,485,226

Comparative view of the condition of the banks in the United States near the commencement of each year, from 1841 *to* 1846, *inclusive, according to the returns nearest to January* 1, *of the years stated.*

	1841	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846
Number of banks from which returns have been received	619	563	577	578	580	587
Number of branches from which returns have been received	165	129	114	118	127	120
Whole number of banks and branches from which returns have been received	784	692	691	696	707	707
Capital paid in	$313,608,959	$260,171,797	$228,861,948	$210,872,056	$206,045,969	$196,894,309
RESOURCES.						
Loans and discounts	386,487,662	323,957,569	254,544,937	264,905,814	288,617,131	312,114,404
Stocks	64,811,135	24,585,540	28,380,050	22,858,570	20.356,070	21,486,834
Real estate	33,524,444	33,341,988	22,826,807	22,520,863	22,177,270	19,099,000
Other investments	11,816,609	8,186,317	13,343,599	12,153,693	10,072,466	7,913,591
Due by other banks	47,877,045	30,752,496	20,666,264	35,860,930	29,619,272	31.689,946
Notes of other banks	25,643,447	19,432,744	13,306,617	11,672,473	12,040,760	12,914,423
Specie funds	3,168,708	3,115,327	6,578,375	6,729,980	6,786,026	8,386,478
Specie	34,813,958	28,440,423	33,515,806	49,898,269	44,241,242	42,012,095
LIABILITIES.						
Circulation	107,290,214	83,734,011	58,563,608	75,167,646	89,608,711	105,552,427
Deposites	64,890,101	62,408,870	56,168,623	84,550,785	88,020,646	96,913,070
Due to other banks	42,861,889	25,863,827	21,456,528	31,998,024	26,337,440	28,218,568
Other liabilities	42,896,226	12,775,106	7,357,033	5,842,010	5,853,902	5,331,572
Aggregate of current credits, *i. e.*, of circulation and deposites	172,180,315	146,142,881	114,732,231	159,718,431	177,629,357	202,465,497
Aggregate of circulation, deposites, and sums due to other banks, *i. e.*, of immediate liabilities	215,042,204	172,006,708	136,188,754	191,716.455	203,966,797	230,684,065
Aggregate of specie funds, notes of other banks, and sums due by other banks, *i. e.*, of immediate means	111,503,158	81,740,990	74,067,062	104,161,652	92,687,200	95,002,942

COTTON CROP FOR THE YEAR ENDING 31st. AUG. 1846.

In giving to our readers the following statistics of the cotton crop for the past year, ending 31st Aug. last, we take occasion to call attention to the amount consumed in the United States, which, it appears, was 422,597 bales; and further, to remark the accuracy with which, as an estimate, the consumption was anticipated by the Hon. Abbott Lawrence, in his letter to Mr. Rives, at page 1026 of our second volume, where he states it at 430,000 bales.

If we estimate these 422,597 bales at 410lbs. each, we have then consumed, in the United States, 173,264,770lbs. Our exports to France were, during the same period, 359,703, and to the north of Europe, 86,692 bales, making in all, 446,395 bales.

Now let us see the difference to the country between manufacturing the 422,597 bales at home, and the shipping of the 446,395 to France and the north of Europe, say 183,021,950lbs.

The crop probably averaged 8 cents, including the Sea Island; and although Mr. Walker estimates the manufactured article at seven times the value of the raw material, we shall take it at what we believe to be the true statement, namely, four times the amount.

The account will then stand thus:

173,264,770lbs. manufactured at home, in the raw state, at 8 cts.	$13,861,181
Four times that amount when manufactured	$55,444,724
Proceeds in France and north of Europe of 183,021,950lbs. at 8 cts.	14,641,756
Balance in favor of home manufacture	$40,802,968

Thus it appears, that the amount gained to the country, in the cotton manufactured at home, over and above the raw material shipped to France and the north of Europe, was actually $40,802,968; and, consequently, there was that amount retained in the country, to be distributed among our cotton-planters, working-men, and capitalists.

Does this require any argument to show the importance of the advantage of the cotton manufacture to this country? Not to the manufacturer alone, but to the grower of the cotton,—to the farmer whose productions feed the laborers,—to the laborers themselves,—to the capitalists, and all concerned.

If it be asked how it benefits the cotton-planter, we answer, that had the 422,597 bales been shipped to Europe, it would have so overstocked the European market, and caused such a reduction in price, that the increased quantity would not have produced to the country one dollar more than did the quantity sent. Should any one doubt this, let him turn to page 368 of the September number of this work, and he will there find, that in the year, from July 1st, 1843, to June 30th, 1844, 663,633,455lbs of

Cotton exported to Europe, produced	$54,063,501
While in the year, from July 1st, 1844, to June 30th, 1845, 872,905,996lbs. of cotton exported, produced but	$51,739,643
Amount produced more on the 663,683,455, than on the 872,905,966lbs	$2,323,858

To show that this was not an uncommon case, arising out of peculiar circumstances, let the inquirer examine the whole of the table, at the page named, (368 Sept. number,) and he will find that an increased quantity brought much less money in many of the years between 1839 and 1844.

This is what we believe to be the true statement; but it would be fair in answering Mr. Walker's *Munchausen statement*, in his report, to use his own weapons, and calculate the value of the manufactured article at seven times, and then the amount would be increased $41,583,543; and would make the gain on the home manufacture, $82,386,506. A reference to the Treasury Report of Mr. Walker, to the last session of Congress will show, that he there says, "If our manufactures consume 400,000 bales, it would cost them $12,000,000, whilst selling the manufactured fabric for $84,000,000." Thus, as we have said, estimating the increase at seven times the cost. But in this, as in most of his calculations, the secretary has shown himself wholly ignorant upon the subject of our trade and manufactures.

In examining this statement our readers will perceive, that the amount now manufactured at home is more than forty per cent. of the amount shipped to Great Britain; and if we estimate the 1,102,360 bales at 410lbs, as above, the amount in pounds will be 451,971,290, at 8 cents, $36,157,703.

The account, therefore, so far as our manufactures are concerned, compared with the shipments of the raw material to Great Britain, will stand thus:

Estimated value of manufactures of cotton in the United States	$55,444,724
Value exported to England, 451,971,290lbs., at 8 cents	36,157,703
Value of home manufactures greater than raw cotton shipped to Great Britain	$19,287,021

But let us take the whole quantity shipped abroad, and then the account will stand thus:

Estimated value of manufactures of cotton in the United States, valuing the manufactured article at four times the cost of raw materials	$55,444,724
Value of raw cotton shipped to all parts of the world, 1,666,792 bales, or 683,384,720lbs., at 8 cts.	54,670,777
Excess of home manufacture	$773,947

Thus, it appears, that the home manufacture exceeds the amount shipped to France and the north of Europe, $40,802,968.

It also exceeds the amount shipped to Great Britain, $19,287,023 60 cents.

It exceeds the whole crop shipped to all the world, $773,947.

We are aware that we have allowed nothing for the freight of the cotton, which would, perhaps, amount to about $2,000,000. We think, allowing the crop to produce 8 cents, will amply cover that amount; but admitting that charge, then, we have the home manufacture exceeded but little more than one million of dollars, by all the shipments of the raw material to all parts of the world; and that calculating the manufactured article at the moderate rate of four prices of the raw material for the manufactured article, which must be very moderate, when Mr. Walker estimates it at seven times that value.

To show the error of the secretary more manifestly, we make the following statement:

Manufactured at home, 173,264,770lbs., at 8 cents, is	$13,861,181 60
Seven times that amount	$97,028,271 20
Value of cotton crop shipped to all the world, 683,384,720lbs. at 8 cts.	54,670,777 00
Value of home manufacture over and above raw material, shipped to all parts of the world, according to Mr. Walker's report	$42,357,494 20

But we prefer the truth to error at all times, and are content to take the statement at four times the value for the manufactured article; and to show, as we have most conclusively done, that the amount of raw cotton manufactured in the United States is nearly equal in value, when manufactured, to all the raw material of cotton shipped to all the world.

Had not the iniquitous tariff of 1846 been enacted, to arrest our progress, we agree fully with the prospective statement made by the Honorable Abbott Lawrence, in his letter to Mr. Rives, before referred to, that in 1850 the quantity of cotton which would be spun would reach 650,000 bales, at 410lbs. each, making 266,500,000, exceeding fifty per cent. what is now manufactured.

With these preliminary remarks and statements, we ask attention to the following statistics of the cotton crop:

COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

STATEMENT AND TOTAL AMOUNT FOR THE YEAR ENDING 31st AUGUST, 1846.

NEW-ORLEANS.		Bales.	Total.	1845
Export—				
To foreign ports	834,775			
Coastwise	220,082			
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1846	6,332			
		1,061,189		
Deduct—				
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1845	7,556			
Received from Mobile	6,356			
Do Florida	5,884			
Do Texas	4,249			
		24,045		
			1,037,144	929,126
MOBILE.				
Export—				
To foreign ports	301,735			
Coastwise	115,898			
Stock, 1st September, 1846	7,476			
Deduct—		425,109		
Stock, 1st September, 1845	609			
Received from wrecked ships	1,275			
Do Texas	666			
Do New-Orleans	593			
		3,143		
FLORIDA.			421,966	517,196
Export—				
To foreign ports	49,981			
Coastwise	90,215			
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1846	1,088			
		141,284		
Deduct—				
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1845		100	141,184	188,693

		Bales.	Total.	1845
TEXAS.				
Export—				
To foreign ports	11,324			
Coastwise	14,184			
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1846	1,500		27,008	
GEORGIA.				
Export from Savannah—				
To foreign ports—Uplands	69,380			
Sea Islands	8,472			
Coastwise—Uplands	106,229			
Sea Islands	2,225			
	196,306			
Burnt in Savannah	1,858			
Stock in Savannah, 1st September, 1846	5,922			
Do Augusta and Hambro', 1st Sept. 1846	9,906	203,982		
Deduct—				
Stock in Savannah and Augusta, 1st Sept. 1845		9,071	194,911	295,440
SOUTH-CAROLINA.				
Export from Charleston—				
To Foreign ports—Uplands	160,233			
Sea Islands	19,527			
Coastwise—Uplands	87,841			
Sea Islands	476			
	268,077			
Export from Georgetown—				
To New-York	3,852			
Stock in Charleston, 1st September, 1846	8,709	280,638		
Deduct—				
Stock in Charleston, 1st September, 1845	10,879			
Received from Savannah	6,397			
Do Florida, Key West, &c.	1,957	29,233	251,405	426,361
NORTH-CAROLINA.				
Export—Coastwise			10,637	12,487
VIRGINIA.				
Export—				
To foreign ports	1,308			
Coastwise	3,505			
Manufactured	10,787			
Stock on hand, 1st Sept. 1846	100	15,700		
Deduct—				
Stock on hand, 1st Sept. 1845		2,418	13,282	25,200
Received at Philadelphia and Baltimore, overland			3,000	
Total Crop of the United States			2,100,537	2,394,503

Total Crop of 1846, as above	bales	2,100,537
Crop of last year		2,394,503
Decrease	bales	293,966

EXPORT TO FOREIGN PORTS.

From Sept. 1, 1845, to Aug. 31, 1846.

FROM	To Great Britain.	To France.	To North of Europe	Other Fn. ports.	T
New-Orleans ... bales	562,320	159,528	28,841	84,086	834,775
Mobile	208,082	66,821	15,974	10,858	301,735
Florida	42,844	7,137	....	....	49,981
Georgia, (Savannah and Darien)	67,117	8,613	....	1,922	87,852
South-Carolina	117,070	50,980	5,118	6,592	179.760
North-Carolina	....	....	....	....	....
Virginia	630	250	378	50	1,308
Baltimore	1,494	....	319	....	1,813
Philadelphia	1,723	....	....	....	1,723
New-York	64,292	65,438	26,556	11,464	197,750
Boston	3,973	736	3,506	556	8,771
Texas	2,824	....	6,000	2,500	11,324
Grand Total	1,102,369	359,703	86,692	118,028	1,666,792
Total last year	1,439,306	359,357	134,501	150,592	2,083,756
Increase	....	346	....	....	....
Decrease	336,937	....	47,809	32,564	416,964

The shipments from Mississippi are included in the export from New-Orleans.

GROWTH.

Total crop of 1826–'27	bales 937,000	1836–'37	bales 1,422,930
1827–'28	712,000	1837–'38	1,801,497
1828–'29	857,744	1838 '39	1,360,532
1829–'30	976.845	1839 '40	2,177,835
1830–'31	1,038,848	1840 '41	1,634,945
1831–'32	987,477	1841 '42	1,683.574
1832–'33	1,070,438	1842 '43	2,378,875
1833–'34	1,205,394	1843 '44	2,030,409
1834–'35	1,254.328	1844 '45	2,394.503
1835–'36	1,360,725	1845 '46	2,100,537

CONSUMPTION.

Total crop of the United States, as above stated			bales 2,100,537
Add—			
Stocks on hand at the commencement of the year, 1st Sep., 1845.			
In the southern ports		30,734	
In the northern ports		67,686	
			98,420
Making a supply of			2,198,957
Deduct therefrom—			
The export to foreign ports	1,666,782		
Less, foreign included	339		
		1.666,443	
Stocks on hand at the close of the year, 1st Sept., 1846.			
In the southern ports	44,033		
In the northern ports	63,089		
		107,122	
Burnt at Savannah	1,848		
Burnt at Philadelphia	347		
Burnt at New-York	600		
		2,795	
			1,776,360
Taken for home use			bales 422,597

QUANTITY CONSUMED BY, AND IN THE HANDS OF MANUFACTURERS.

1845—'46	bales 422,597	1836—'37	bales 222,540
1844—'45	389,006	1835—'36	236,733
1843—'44	346,744	1834—'35	216,888
1842—'43	325,129	1833—'34	196,413
1841—'42	267,850	1832—'33	194,412
1840—'41	297,288	1831—'32	173,800
1839—'40	295,193	1830—'31	182,142
1838—'39	276,018	1829—'30	126,512
1837—'38	246,063	1828—'29	118,853

By the foregoing statement, it will be seen, that the crop falls short of last year's by 293,966 bales; add to this the quantity put down for Texas, and the actual difference is 320,974.

Our estimate of the quantity taken for consumption, does not include any cotton manufactured in the states south and west of Virginia, nor any in that state, except in the vicinity of Petersburg and Richmond.

The quantity of new cotton received at the shipping ports, up to the 1st inst., amounted only to about 200 bales, against 7,500 last year.

In regard to the crop now commenced picking, it may be remarked, that it is about three weeks later than last year, and consequently more exposed to injury—while the fact is very generally concluded, that in parts of Alabama and Mississippi, Louisiana and Texas, much injury has been already done by wet and by worms. In the Atlantic states, however, appearances indicate a full average crop.

PROGRESS OF INDUSTRY IN THE UNITED STATES.

We extract from a work published in London, in 1814, by Le Chevalier Felix De Beaujour, late French Consul General in the United States, author of the View of the Commerce of Greece, a statistical table of the general condition of this country, from 1774 to 1805.

Although this table can only be considered as an approximate statement, still it possesses much interest, it being well known that the Consuls of France are instructed by their government to furnish from the public documents of the country in which they reside, the most accurate accounts within their power.

We think also, that it will interest the readers of the National Magazine, to read some of the Chevalier's views of our manufacturing industry at that period.

The reason he gives for the progress made in manufacturing industry, to wit, "the shackles with which the belligerent powers have obstructed the navigation and commerce of neutrals," in our view, speaks strongly in favor of the protective system; for we never have been exactly able to see any very great difference between the good effects produced to the national industry by any state of political relations, that preserved to our people their own market, and the same results produced by our legislation. The bane of this country has always been the destructive effect produced upon labor, enterprise, skill and capital, by the evils arising from depressed labor, from the introduction of its proceeds to interfere with our better fed, better clothed, better housed and better educated people. When we have an amount of population vastly greater than is necessary to provide us with food, why should we go abroad for coal, for iron and clothing, when we have every raw material for furnishing ourselves with them

We know very well the reason why Europe can work up raw materials cheaper, as it is called, than we can do ourselves. It is because we give to the working man more of what he produces. Anything, therefore, that adds to the value of foreign manufactured articles, operates as a stimulus to the home product. Our agricultural productions can be multiplied in any quantities that a foreign demand may require, without taking away from other pursuits one man that is employed in them.

The war of 1812 proved most conclusively, that we only needed the absence of pauper labor to create manufactures to supply all our wants; and although we of course are no advocates for a war, but on the contrary rejoice in peace, yet that does not shut our eyes to the fact, that wages and produce were higher during the late war than they have been since

Something of the same state of things existed about the period of which Chevalier De Beaujour writes, for then, as he says, "the shackles with which the belligerent powers obstructed the navigation and commerce of neutrals," operated to keep out the pauper labor, which always *has*, and always *will*, retard this country in making itself independent of Europe, whenever such labor is freely admitted to interfere with our own.

The political economists of Europe may write books for ever, and will still fail to prove that the prosperity or happiness of this country can be promoted, by suffering the division of property among our citizens. to reach a state that, like their own, deprives labor of its just reward. England may possibly succeed in her plans, falsely called "Free Trade," with crowned heads, whose interest it is to make *man cheap;* but she and her coadjutors in the United States may rest assured that the nature of things can never be made to suit their purposes in the United States.

Our independence was achieved, and our present Constitution formed, for the express purpose of making the mass of our citizens comfortable and happy, which they never can be without protection from the effects of the vicious institutions of Europe. To do this we must have a protective tariff, and neither British influence, nor party discipline, can for any long time prevent it.

But we must return to our friend the Chevalier, and now quote from his book and insert his tables, adding a sketch of the state of the country in 1840, taken from Professor Tucker's work on the Census, with a view to show our progress in population and industry since 1810.

Statistics from Professor Tucker's work on the census of 1840.

Free persons in 1840—Whites,	14,189,555	
do do Colored,	386,348	
		14,575,903
Slaves in 1840,	2,487,355	2,487,355
Total population,		$17,063,258

Annual Products of Industry.

Produce of Agriculture,	$654,387,597
Produce of the fisheries, forests, and mines,	71,189,829
Manufactures,	239,836,224
Commerce,	79,721,086
Total annual amount of industry,	$1,045,134,736

State of the Banks in 1846.

Specie in Banks,	$42,002,095
Circulation of Banks,	105,552427

EXTRACTS FROM MR. BEAUJOUR'S WORK.

"Manufacturing industry, which had long remained stationary in the United States, has, since the year 1805, made very rapid progress, and this is principally due to the shackles with which the belligerent powers have obstructed the navigation and commerce of neutrals. Its produce is now rated at 125 millions of dollars, or at about 100 millions, after deducting the price of the raw materials, on which this industry has been exercised, and which are nearly all the produce of agriculture and of the forests and mines.

The principal branch of American manufacture. is the building of vessels. The Americans excel in naval architecture, and in this particular point certainly rival the most industrious people of Europe. The best built vessels are those of Philadelphia, Baltimore and New-York; but the most durable are those constructed in the Southern ports of wood from the two Carolinas. The annual tonnage of vessels, built in the different yards, is estimated at about 100,000 tons.

Cartwright and joiners' works are well understood in the principal towns; and, in Philadelphia, coaches and furniture are made, which are of considerable demand in the West Indies, and even in Spanish America. In Philadelphia, also, the best breweries and distilleries are to be met with, as well as the least imperfect sugar refineries.

There are near Boston, as well as in several other towns of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, cotton works put in motion by the steam engines, where the cotton is cleaned, spun, and wound at the same time; but the cotton cloths made in the United States are of a coarse tissue. The same may be said of their works in wool, hemp, and flax, which for the greatest part are manufactured in the houses; nearly all their fine linens and cloths being obtained through foreign channels.

At Danbury, in Connecticut, there is a good manufacture of hats; and beaver and wool hats are also made in Boston, New-York, Philadelphia and Baltimore, as well as in nearly all the other large towns. Stockings are knit in Germantown in Pennsylvania, in considerable quantities, as well as in several other small towns and villages; but in general there are few looms in the United States, and their hosiery is still very coarse. Silk manufactures are there entirely unknown.

Bad writing and printing paper is manufactured in nearly all the States; and printing presses are established even in the small towns, where weekly and even daily papers are published.

In Rhode Island, and particularly in the small town of Nantucket, famed for its fisheries, spermaceti candles are made, which in whiteness rival those of wax, but they do not give so pure and equal a light.

The saddlery of England is very well imitated in the principal towns, as well as other works in leather; and from Salem, Boston, Providence, Philadelphia and Baltimore, a large quantity of shoes and boots is exported to the West Indies. The best manufactures in leather are in New-Jersey and Pennsylvania; and the best tanning establishment is in the state of Delaware.

No clock or jewellers works are carried on, except in the large towns, but in nearly all, coarse glass and earthenware is manufactured. The best glass is manufactured at Pittsburg, and earthenware the least imperfect at Philadelphia, where a quantity similar to that of Staffordshire, in England, is made.

Forges are established in New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia; and in several States, particularly the northern ones, utensils of iron, the most necessary for agriculture and building, are manufactured.

Locksmiths' work is scarcely introduced into the United States, and all their cutlery and other works in steel are imported from England.

Tin-work is done and varnished in Connecticut and Massachusetts; but the greatest part of their copper utensils are obtained from abroad, especially from Germany.

There are cannon foundries at Philadelphia, Richmond, and near Washington, which cast two or three hundred pieces per annum, and manufactures of muskets, at Springfield, New-Haven, and Harper's Ferry, which make annually from 20 to 30 thousand stand.

Gunpowder mills are also met with near New-York, Philadelphia and Baltimore; but these manufactures are very inferior to those of Europe. The best is that of Brandywine, near Wilmington, in Delaware, which has been established, and is directed by a Frenchman.

Other Frenchmen, and particularly emigrants from St. Domingo, have established in the United States other useful manufactures; and have given to the manufacturing as well as agricultural industry of that country, a considerable impulse, which will cause the happy effects of their emigration to be long remembered.

But in general, the manufactures of the United States are still imperfect; and the Americans can scarcely be considered on a level with Europeans, unless in some coarse works the most necessary to the wants of life. In all others, and particularly in those which require a great perfection of the hand and a great division of labour, they are extremely backward; and their manufactures can scarcely be considered in any other light than domestic manufactures, conducted on narrow and mean plans. Each manufacture works only for the district, or at most, for the state in which it is placed; and there are few of these home made goods exported. Their value does not exceed five millions of dollars.

Nevertheless, as in the least industrious countries, sometimes useful inventions are to be found. In the United States we meet with two machines, which deserve to fix the attention of the observer, because they are capable of enriching the manufacturing industry of other countries. The one is a machine for manufacturing nails, and the other for making cards, for the carding of wool and cotton.

The nail machine is moved by water, and cuts 140 nails in one minute, and at one single movement makes the head and shank of the nail. A child is sufficient to conduct the machine; a very small volume of water to move it; and the construction of the apparatus is such, that the play of one part can be stopped at will, without retarding that of the others.

The machine for making cards is still more ingenious; it appears to have a soul. In order to form each double tooth, this machine moves the metal plate, stops and pierces it; brings the wire, cuts, stops and bends, and it carries it to the plate, guides it into the small holes, and bends it again. Here we have ten operations; a small line turns a crank, and these ten operations are repeated 143 times in each minute. The mechanism, consequently, performs 1,430 movements in one minute, and this surprising succession of operations can be repeated with trifling labour during a whole day. A young girl or boy can work two of these machines at a time, and in one day fit out twenty-five cards. These cards are superior to those made with the hand, because the teeth are more regular, stronger and more elastic.*

Another ingenious machine invented in the United States, but which the inventor has also made known in Europe, is the steamboat, put in motion by wheels similar to wings, which in the water answer the purpose of oars. This boat already plies on the Hudson, Delaware and Mississippi; and it will shortly be established on all the rivers which receive the tide up to a certain distance. The inventor of this boat† is also the inventor of another machine, which, though it cannot, indeed, advance the progress of industry in the United States, may, nevertheless, tend to the defence of their harbours. This is called the torpedo, and is destined to blow up the largest ships. It is an apparatus of which the principal piece is a copper box, inclosing a certain quantity of gunpowder, and prepared with an interior spring which sets fire to the powder, at the same time that the whole is inclosed in a covering of cork, or some other light wood, to make the torpedo float under the surface of the water. It is placed under the keel of the vessel intended to be destroyed, by means of an harpoon directed against the sides of the ship.

This last invention, in its result, is no other than the application of the process of a mine against those floating castles, which we call ships of war. I am not aware whether this invention can ever come into general use; but of this I am assured, that it can never be considered as a benefit to humanity, because men are already acquainted with too many means of destroying each other, without its being necessary to teach them the adoption of new ones.

In the United States, and particularly in those of the North, several other ingenious machines are to be met with, adapted to shorten or perfect labour; but as they have nearly all been borrowed from England, it would be irrelevant to describe them in a work exclusively relating to the United States.

No prohibitory system or monopoly shackles the industry of this country; and when we reflect on those prohibitions and monopolies which, in other countries, damp the exertions of man, it appears surprising that manufactures have not there made a greater progress; but independently of a want of knowledge, which every where retards the progress of the arts, what must keep them down in the United States is, the dearness of manual labour. In France, the mean price of work, per day, is two francs in the towns, and one and a half in the country; in America, it is one dollar in the towns, and three-fourths of a dollar in the country; and as the dollar is worth five and a quarter francs, it results that labour is there three times dearer than in France.

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* The two machines for making nails and cards, were imported into France, by Messrs. Degrand and Ellis, through the assistance I gave them during my residence in the United States.

† Mr. Fulton, the inventor of the torpedo, successively proposed his invention to France against England, and then to the latter against France, and on their joint refusal, to the United States against both; which proves that this celebrated mechanic is a true cosmopolite.

The high price of labour is consequently the principal cause that retards the progress of manufacturing industry in the United States; and the Americans can never equal the Europeans in this branch, till, like the English, they have made up for the dearness of labour, by a more general adoption of machinery. Hitherto, with their own manufactures, they have not been able to supply half their consumption; and on beholding all they are obliged to obtain from a foreign market, one would almost be induced to think that they were still a colony of Europe, and what is still more humiliating to their pride, a colony of England.

Having nothing to exchange between themselves but their agricultural productions, their interior commerce is nearly reduced to that of the coast; little inland trade is carried on there in consequence of the small number of high roads, and the still smaller number of navigable canals; but the rivers with which the country is intersected, and which receive the tide up to a great height, are extremely favourable to inland and coasting navigation, in which 300,000 tons, and as many as 20,000 sailors are already employed.*

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* To enable our readers to judge of the badness of the roads, and the importance of river communications, we have been induced to subjoin, that during the late war, the inhabitants of the western country found it more to their advantage to send their flour and other produce, through Pittsburg, down the Mississippi to New-Orleans, than to convey it overland to Philadelphia, notwithstanding it is only 210 miles from Bedford to Philadelphia, and 150 to Baltimore; whereas, the distance from Bedford to New-Orleans is 2,200 miles, viz: 100 by land to Pittsburg, and 2,100 by water. In addition to this, the shipping merchants were thrown out of the direct line of supplies of goods, obtained in the Atlantic towns for the consumption of the interior, and besides had to run the risk of remittances, and incur an expensive detour for the bargemen. From these circumstances, the importance of New-Orleans, as a key to the western country, may be estimated, a position that, from its vicinity to the West Indies, is destined to become the centre of an immense trade. Ships of 300 tons are built at Pittsburg, Marietta, and Louisville, and descend the Ohio and Mississippi to New-Orleans, laden with flour, Indian corn, hams, pork, butter, whiskey, bar-iron, home-spun linens, bottles manufactured in the country, &c.; part for the consumption of Lower Louisiana, and part for export to the West Indies. Some of these articles come from Redstone, on the Monongahela, from Lexington, Elizabethtown, New Geneva, &c. Marietta was the first town that made the bold attempt of exporting direct to the West Indies, and the first vessel went to Jamaica. Pittsburg soon followed this example, and from its more central situation, at the confluence of the Monongahela and Allegany rivers, which by their junction form the Ohio. has retained the great bulk of the New-Orleans trade. Pittsburg is the immediate channel of communication with all the country west of the Allegany mountains, is extremely healthy, and provisions are there two-thirds cheaper than on the Atlantic coast. Ship timber is extremely plentiful, such as the *quercus rubra, alba, tinctoria,* and *ceracus Virginia,* and lofty pines for masting. Cordage is also manufactured on the spot. All these united advantages, together with the facilities of the towns already built on the principal points of the river navigation, give a most incalculable advantage to the new settlements west of the Alleganys, and have caused them to increase in an astonishing manner.—*English Translator.*

General Statistical Table of the United States, from Mr. Beaujour's Work.

YEARS.	POPULATION.			TERRITORY.		INDUSTRY.			FOREIGN COMMERCE.	
	Free Persons.	Slaves, with an annual increase of 2½ per cent.	Total Population, including Louisiana, in 1804.	Cultivated. Number of Acres cultivated.	Uncultivated. Number of Acres uncultivated.	Produce of Agriculture.	Produce of the Waters, Forests, and Mines.	Produce of Manufactures.	Exports.	Imports.
	Numbers.	Numbers,	Numbers.			Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1774..	1,985,000	500,000	2,485,000	20,860,000	1,259,140.000	....	....	....	6.100,000	7.000.000
1784..	2,650,000	600,000	3,250,000	21,500.000	1,258,500.000	....	....	....	10,150.000	11.000.000
1790..	3,232,303	697,697	3,930,000	30,000,000	1,250,000,000	....	....	....	16.000.000	17,500,000
1791..	3,333,761	714,139	4,047,900	31.000,000	1,249.000,000	....	....	....	18,399.202	19.000,000
1792..	3,438,237	731,000	4,169.237	32,000.000	1,248,000.000	....	....	....	21.006,068	22.000.000
1793..	3,446,417	748,000	4,194,417	33,500,000	1.246,500.000	....	....	....	26.011.778	26.000.000
1794..	3,657,189	766.000	4,423,189	34.000.000	1,246,000,000	....	....	....	33,043.725	34.000,000
1795..	3,771,946	784,000	4.555,946	34.500,000	1,245,500,000	....	....	....	47.855,556	48,000.000
1796..	3,890,124	802,500	4.692,624	35,100,000	1,244,900.000	....	....	....	67,064.097	68.000.000
1797..	4,012,902	820,500	4,833,402	35,600,000	1,244,400.000	....	....	....	51,094,710	52.000.000
1798..	4,140,404	838,000	4,978.404	36.100.000	1,243,900.000	....	....	....	61,327,411	63,000.000
1799..	4,273,756	854,000	5,127,756	36,300,000	1,243,700,000	....	....	....	78,265.522	79.500.000
1800..	4,404,798	876,790	5,281,588	36,800,000	1,243,200,000	147,200,000	16,681,000	13,199,764	70,961.780	71,800.000
1801..	4,544,300	898,300	5,442,600	37,000,000	1,243,000.000	148,000.000	17,255,800	17,003,005	93.020,515	88,900.000
1802..	4,682,313	921,000	5,603,313	38,000,000	1,242,000,000	152,000.000	19,463,400	21,010,524	61,957,144	73.000 000
1803..	4,727,412	944.000	5,671,412	38,500,000	1,241,500.000	154,000,000	20,569.500	28.758,000	55.791,034	56,000 000
1804..	5,000,100	999,900	6,000,000	38,950,000	1,241.050.000	155,800,000	23,455,000	30,350,000	77,709,076	80,000,000
1805..	5,156,000	1,024,900	6,180,900	39,400,000	1,240,600,000	157,600,000	26,254,000	32,525.000	95,566,021	96,000,000

GENERAL TABLE—CONTINUED.

YEARS.	MONIES.		NATIONAL RICHES.		FINANCES.		PUBLIC STRENGTH.			
							Army.	Militia,	Navy.	
	Specie.	Bank Bills in Circulation.	Annual Revenue of the United States.	Total value of real and personal property of the United States.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Number of Regulars.	Number of Men.	Number of Vessels.	Number of Seamen.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.				
1774..	4,000,000	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1784..	10.000,000	2.000.000	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1790..	9.000.000	2,500,000	113,900,000	2,587,681,000	....	....	....	....	....	....
1791..	16,000,000	9,000,000	117,300,000	2,797,186,000	4,771.200	3,797,436	....	....	....	....
1792..	18,000 000	11,500,000	125,000,000	2.987,686,000	8.771.600	8.962 920	....	....	....	....
1793..	20,000,000	11,000.000	128,800.000	3,187,186.000	6.450,195	6,479,977	....	....	....	....
1794..	21,500,000	11,600.000	137.100.000	3.387,168,000	9,041,593	9,041.593	....	....	....	....
1795..	19,000,000	11.000.000	141,200,000	3,947,816,000	10,151.240	10,151,240	....	....	....	....
1796..	16,500,000	11,500.000	150.100.000	3,628,316,000	8.367.776	8,367,776	....	....	....	124
1797..	16,140.000	10,000.000	154,600.000	3,758,816,000	8,625 877	8,625.877	....	555,000	3	350
1798..	14,000,000	9,000,000	164,200,000	3.798,316,000	8.583,618	8,583,618	....	561,142	13	950
1799..	17,000,000	10,000,000	169,200,000	3,868,613,000	11.004.965	11,004.965	....	570.000	42	970
1800..	17,500,000	10,500,000	197.068,813	3,583.680,000	11,952,534	11.952.534	....	578.000	42	600
1801..	17,000,000	11,000.000	207,727,677	3.733,240,000	13,179,792	12,273.376	....	583.314	20	600
1802..	16.500.000	10,000,000	212,767,924	3,815,100,000	13,690,092	13,270,457	4,569	591,211	20	600
1803..	16,000,000	11,000,000	218,979,504	4,901,875,000	11,775,058	11,258,913	4,569	600.102	18	556
1804..	17,500.000	15,000,000	231,682.870	3,981,957,500	14,569,459	12,640.000	4,569	610,125	20	560
1805..	18,000,000	20,000.000	243,1[illegible]9.241	4,070.937,159	15.513,534	13,000,000	4,569	622,000	29	720

SKETCH OF ROCHESTER, MONROE COUNTY, NEW-YORK.

The census for 1845, taken by the authorities of the state of New-York, furnishes us with some interesting statistics of the city of Rochester, in the state of New-York, a place which owes its remarkably rapid progress, even in comparison with other flourishing American cities and towns, to its favorable location on the Erie canal, where it crosses the Genesee river, a few miles from the outlet of the latter into Lake Ontario; thus being the principal depot for the agricultural products of the fertile valley of the Genesee; but more than all to the abundant water power furnished by the Genesee river, which has been improved by an enterprising population in the application of the same to various mills and manufactories, particularly in the manufacture of flour, and other products of the farmer, for markets domestic and foreign.

We are indebted to Mr. O'Reilly's valuable work on Rochester and Western New-York, for some of the facts which we now present, illustrating the history and progress of a city, which has been built by the union of agricultural and manufacturing enterprise, and now takes a prominent rank among the cities of the Union, in population, wealth, commercial importance, and the industry and intelligence of its inhabitants.

In expressing astonishment at the career of Rochester, De Witt Clinton remarked, shortly before his death, that when he passed the Genesee on a tour with other commissioners for exploring the route of the Erie canal, in 1810, there was not a house where Rochester now stands. In 1812, there were but two frame dwellings there, small and rude enough, one of which remained in 1838, to remind the visiter of the change since the period when the occupants of those shantees had to contend against wild beasts for the scanty crop of corn first raised on a tract now included in the heart of the city.

It was not till the year 1812, that the "Hundred Acre Tract" was planned as the nucleus of a settlement, under the name of Rochester, after the senior proprietor, Colonel Nathaniel Rochester, a native of Virginia, who resided many years at Hagerstown in Maryland, and emigrated to Western New-York in 1810. He first established himself in Dansville, Steuben county, in 1810, and at that place, where he spent five years, he erected a paper mill and other improvements. He subsequently removed to Bloomfield, Ontario county, where he continued for three years, and in 1818 took up his residence at the village of Rochester, which in the interim had received his name. He died in 1831.

The first allotments for a village were made, as above stated, in 1812, when Nathaniel Rochester, Charles H. Carroll, and William Fitzhugh, surveyed the Hundred Acre Tract for settlement, under the name of "Rochester." This tract was the same land which Phelps and Gorham, the early proprietors of this part of Western New-York, deeded to Allen in 1790, in consideration of having a mill erected, to accommodate the few settlers in the surrounding country. It was part of the large tract of twelve by twenty-four miles, on the west side of the Genesee, which Phelps and Gorham had previously obtained for the purposes of a *mill-yard!* It had passed from Allen into the hands of Sir William Pulteney, from the agent of whose estate (Charles Williamson) it was purchased in 1802, for $17 50 per acre, by the persons who thus made arrangement for founding a village upon it. This Hundred Acre Tract lies directly abreast and west of the First Falls, from the dam at which water is now conveyed in races for valuable machinery, on both sides of the river.

Other allotments for settlement were made during the same year. Immediately north of the HundredAcre or Rochester tract, Matthew and Francis Brown, and Thomas Mumford, bought and laid out the tract directly abreast and west of the Main or Middle Falls, which are ninety-six feet high, and from a dam at which water is now thrown into races on both sides of the river. This tract was previously occupied by Mr. Hanford, who had a couple of log houses, and likewise a small mill. This allotment was called "Frankfort," after the name of Francis Brown. Opposite this Frankfort Tract, and on the east side of the Main Falls, Samuel J. Andrews and Moses Atwater laid out a tract of considerable size during the same year—the mill-race which now derives water from the same dam that supplies the Frankfort tract.

In 1813, there were three houses built and occupied on the west side of the river. The land where the county buildings (court house, &c.) now stand, was cleared, sown with wheat, and afterwards used as pasture.

In 1814, some attempts were made to commence mercantile operations; but little improvement was made during that year, or for some time afterward.

The settlement of Rochester, commenced almost simultaneously with the last war between this country and Great Britain, was almost wholly checked by that event. The hostilities along the Niagara caused a concentration of troops there, which left defenceless this point, then comparatively unimportant. The mouth of the Genesee was therefore not unfrequently visited by the British fleet, under Sir James Yeo, commander of the forces on Lake Ontario. The apprehension of attack prevented many from settling at Rochester, as they had designed, and even caused the removal to more secure places of some who had already located in the vicinity.

The close of the war permitted the checked tide of improvement to roll onward again.

In 1815, Hervey Ely, Josiah Bissell, and Elisha Ely, finished the "Red Mill," afterwards called the Hydraulic building. Samuel Hildreth, of Pittsford, commenced running a stage with a mail twice a week between Rochester and Canandaigua, about 30 miles, and a private weekly mail route was established between Rochester and Lewiston, 78 miles, dependent for support on the income of the post offices on the route.

In 1816, the first religious society (Presbyterian) was formed, consisting of sixteen members; a small paper called the Rochester Gazette was commenced; a mill race was finished by Brown and Mumford, and a cotton factory was commenced on the Frankfort tract; a tavern was opened by Abelaid Reynolds, on the Hundred Acre tract, Buffalo-street; a commencement was made in the business of purchasing produce from the neighboring country. The population, numbering 331 at the beginning of the year 1816, was not ascertained at the close.

Thus have we traced all that we find worthy of notice as illustrative of the condition of the place, previous to the act by which was created the village of *Rochesterville*, in 1817, from which period the commencement of Rochester may be fairly dated; the difficulties interposed by the war having prevented any considerable improvement before the year 1816. The name of the village corporation was changed from "*Rochesterville*" to "Rochester," the original name, by an act of the Legislature, passed in 1819.

After several applications made to the Legislature, and after controversies respecting the mode of appointing justices of the peace, had defeated the passage of an act for the purpose at the previous session, the *City of Rochester* was chartered in the Spring of 1834.

On the incorporation of the village, in 1817, about 750 acres were included within its limits. The city charter, in 1834, extended the bounds so as to embrace upwards of four thousand acres. For a considerable distance in the northern part, the city includes a comparatively narrow strip on both sides of the river, being thus extended northward, so as to comprehend the Lower Falls and landing for steamboats from Lake Ontario. At this landing, the waters of the Genesee river are on a level with Lake Ontario. The river is at this point 330 feet below Lake Erie; 266 feet below the Erie canal in Rochester, and 240 feet above the tide water of the Hudson.

As a fact singularly illustrative of the vast changes which the country has undergone, it may be mentioned, that the "Hundred Acre Tract," which Phelps and Gorham bestowed on Allen, for building the rude and frail mills before mentioned, was part of a tract twelve by twenty-four miles in extent, which they had previously obtained from the Indians for the purposes of a "mill yard." Some of the land on the east side of the Genesee, in Rochester, (the Hundred Acre Tract being on the west side,) was sold by Phelps and Gorham, in 1790, for eighteen pence an acre.

In 1820, while the construction of the Erie canal was in progress, Rochester begun to show signs of a rapid increase, and the prospect of soon ranking among the most flourishing villages in the state. The population, which was only 331 in 1816, had swollen to 1,500 in 1820. Five years afterward, 1825, the census showed a total of 4,274. In October of the latter year, the Erie canal was completed, and boats passed from Lake Erie to the Hudson river. The United States census, in 1830, gave Rochester a population of 9,269; the state census of 1835 showed that the number of inhabitants had increased to 14,404; in 1840, by the United States census, the population was 20,191, and by the state census of 1845, the amount was 25,265.

At the conclusion of some statistical notices, published in June, 1836, Henry O'Reilly, Esq., (for a long time a prominent editor of one of the public journals of Rochester, and author of the work from which we derive much of our information respecting the place,) remarked as follows:

"In the extension of the manufacturing, milling and forwarding business, more has been done within the last two years than in the previous six years; and from the impetus given by the immensely valuable internal improvements, in progress or authorized by the state, as well as those projected by individual enterprise, it cannot be doubted that the prosperity of the city will for the next five years, increase in a ratio surpassing the most rapid strides which Rochester has made from its foundation to the present day.

"This prediction is more confidently made, from the facts:—

"That the additions to the population are chiefly mechanics and artizans, characterized by the ingenuity, perseverance and moral worth, which constitute the true riches of New England:

"That the hydraulic privileges, with the facilities of trade by lake, canal and rail-road, and the proverbial fertility of the Genesee Valley, offer to such a population strong inducements and inexhaustible means for developing our great resources:

"That the prosperity of the city has been occasioned chiefly by the toil and enterprise of hard working artizans and practical business men, instead of being bloated into notoriety by the forced or fraudulent exertions of speculating capitalists;

"And last, but not least, from the important fact, that notwithstanding the great efforts which have been used to direct attention farther west, Rochester has quietly pursued its prosperous course, almost wholly uninfluenced by the mad spirit of speculation which must, as certainly as effect follows cause, react ruinously and speedily upon some of the paper cities that have been rendered most notorious in that way. The lesson on this subject which Rochester experienced in 1829, was a moderate lesson compared with that which certain other cities and towns are shortly to undergo. The temporary reverse which our citizens then felt has warned them, amid all their subsequent prosperity, against extravagant and gambling speculations."

The comparative tranquillity and continued prosperity of Rochester, during the revolutions which distracted business so essentially elsewhere, from 1836 to 1842, abundantly verify the predictions hazarded as above by the writer referred to. It will be observed, that the population of the city has nearly doubled in amount since 1835, and that there has been a proportionate increase of business and wealth, we may infer from a variety of circumstances, even in the absence of exact data to prove this increase.

The city of Rochester and the Valley of the Genesee are so intimately connected in their resources and interests, that an account of the town would be essentially defective, without ample reference to the rich country of which it may be termed the capital.

The Genesee Valley, by which is understood the whole territory drained by the Genesee River, is one of the most important sections of the state of New-York, whether considered with reference to position, extent, fertility, or variety of production.

Rising in the heart of Potter County, Pennsylvania, the Genesee river flows north into the state of New-York, and crossing its entire breadth is discharged into Lake Ontario. Its course, in a direct line, is nearly ninety miles; its whole course, perhaps, one hundred and thirty miles. In this state its course is winding, through the counties of Allegany, Livingston and Monroe; its general direction from south to north. The average width of the country drained by the Genesee river may be about twenty-five miles, and the territory in this state about 2,300 square miles.

The Genesee may be considered as occupying two extensive levels; the first reaching from Rochester to the falls at Nunda or Portage, upwards of forty miles, and the other from these falls to its source; and these levels are not more distinctly marked by the falls that terminate them, than by the difference of the soils that constitute them. The river has its sources among the hills, at the northern extremity of the Pennsylvania coal formation. After entering this state, its course for forty miles in Allegany county is through the sandstone and argillaceous slate that constitute the transition rocks of the Western District, and of course the upper part of the valley is siliceous, or inclining to sand and loam. In the northern part of Allegany county, the river passes through the elevated ridge dividing the waters of the lakes that flow into the Allegany and the Susquehannah. On this elevated range the soil assumes a more compact texture, and begins to exhibit traces of lime. At the falls of the river at Nunda, a new formation may be said to discover itself, of which lime in some form is the basis, exerting a corresponding influence in determining the character and qualities of the soil, and which, with trifling exceptions, continues to the mouth of the river.

Nowhere can there be found soils of more inexhaustible fertility than the far famed Flats of the Genesee river. These extend, with a width varying from one mile to two and a half miles, more than sixty miles in length. They are marked, of course, by the peculiarities of the country through which the river flows, but their general character of fertility is the same.

Wheat is at present, and will probably long remain, the great object of cultivation; and the quantities produced between Lake Ontario and the falls of Nunda, at Portageville, which may be considered the southern limit of the wheat country proper, almost exceed belief, and in quality as well as quantity is generally considered much beyond that of any other section of the country.

In 1835, Messrs. P. and G. Mills, cut from 27 acres on the Genesee Flats, near Mount Morris, 1270 bushels of wheat, or 47 bushels to the acre. In 1834, the same gentlemen cut from 80 acres, three thousand two hundred bushels of wheat, being forty bushels to the acre. The most beautiful field of Indian corn we ever saw, (says Mr. O'Reilly,) was in the summer of 1833, on the farm of W. C. Dwight, Esq., on the flats a few miles above Geneseo. There were 170 acres lying in one body, and from it he harvested twelve thousand eight hundred bushels of shelled corn. In 1834, the same gentleman had twenty acres of wheat, which averaged forty eight bushels per acre, and two acres of the best of which produced fifty two bushels per acre. The elevated country on the east and west of the river, is scarcely inferior in the growth of wheat; the greatest amount we believe on record, is the well authenticated product of a single acre, having been raised by Mr. Jireh Blackmore, of Wheatland, being sixty four bushels per acre.

On the river flats above the falls of the Genesee, at Portageville, wheat is cultivated to some extent, but the great object of the farmer is Indian corn, and the crop is usually very heavy. On the elevated lands of the Genesee valley, the attention of the owners of the soil is principally directed to the growth of wool, the raising of cattle for market, and the various products of the dairy. Spring grain, such as spring wheat, barley, oats, &c., can be produced to any desirable amount; [illegible] country can exceed it in the production of the grasses; and when [illegible] Genesee valley canal, and the New-York and Erie railroad shall have developed its resources, in connexion with the coal and iron mines of Northern Pennsylvania, the upper portion of this valley will not be found one of the least inviting sections of the country.

The lower Genesee valley is admirably adapted to the various fruits and vegetables raised in our latitudes. The apple, pear, plum, quince, cherry, &c., are of the best varieties, and easily cultivated; and many of the more delicate fruits, such as peaches, apricots, nectarines, grapes, &c., attain a size and richness of flavor rarely equalled in other sections of country in the same latitude. Of these facts, a visit to the Rochester markets at the proper season, will convince any observer, and show that the southern shore of Lake Ontario is emphatically a fruit country. A great variety of ornamental trees and shrubs which are unable to withstand the early frosts and severe cold of the valleys of the Hudson and the Connecticut, succeed without trouble in the vicinity of Rochester and Lake Ontario. The wild mulberry is found on the upper Genesee and its branches, and from the fact that the various kinds of foreign mulberries here withstand the usual cold of the winters without injury, it may be inferred that the region of the Genesee valley is well adapted to the growth of silk.

It may well be questioned, when the known capabilities of this section are considered, whether any section of the United States, of the same number of square miles, can be found capable of supporting a greater population, and supplying them with all the necessaries and many of the luxuries of life than the *valley of the Genesee river.* It has with great truth been denominated *the granary of America.* No element of prosperity or happiness appears to be wanting. In this valley nature appears to have faithfully performed her part; it only remains for the inhabitants to appreciate and improve the advantages she has so prodigally placed in their hands.

The Genesee River.—Besides the particulars of this stream incidentally included in the account of the valley, some further information is necessary to a correct appreciation of the characteristics of the Genesee. As the river runs through the centre of the city, furnishing the hydraulic advantages which form permanent ingredients in the prosperity of Rochester, such particulars may be appropriately introduced here, preliminary to an account of the manufactures and other business of the city.

The Indian word Genesee, signifies Pleasant Valley. Few rivers of equal extent have scenery more picturesque—there are none with banks more fertile. From its rise in Pennsylvania, till it mingles its waters with Lake Ontario, near the City of Rochester, the shores of the Genesee present a succession of beauties, such as in other lands would attract crowds of admiring travellers.

The source is not less remarkable than the course of the Genesee. The table land in which it originates, is about 1700 feet above the Atlantic level, and furnishes, within a space of six miles square, streams which flow towards the ocean in opposite directions—through the St. Lawrence, the Chesapeake Bay and the Gulf of Mexico. The bold and romantic features of its shores are strikingly exemplified in a brief portion of its course through Allegany County in the State of New-

York. Within two miles the river is precipitated upwards of three hundred feet. This great descent embraces three perpendicular pitches, the Falls of Nunda presenting much of the sublime and beautiful—the ravine worn through rock by the river, (leaving perpendicular banks of from two to four hundred feet) being scarcely less wonderful than the cataracts of the stream.

Descending from the high lands of Allegany County, and emerging from between rocky banks of great height, the Genesee courses through a region of opposite character, a region unsurpassed in fertility. Rarely does the eye rest upon a lovelier scene than the valley of this stream presents from the villages of Genesee or Mount Morris, which are built on declivities on either side of the flats. Here are the beauties of nature most harmoniously blended with the elements of agricultural wealth. At this portion of the valley of the Genesee, the prospect is bounded by the swelling uplands on either side, and the Allegany hills in the southern distance.

The pleasantness of the valley from Geneseo to Rochester, is proverbial. The stream is extremely serpentine in its course for the greater part of this space. Various thriving villages are scattered along its banks, and the thousands who visit the *Avon Springs*, find the country as agreeable as the mineral waters are salutary.

The Falls of the Genesee in Rochester are remarkable for their appearance as well as for their hydraulic power, as may be conjectured from the fact that the river is precipitated about 260 feet within the city limits. Though the mere business man may calculate the hydraulic value of the falls in dollars and cents, they afford a scene valuable beyond price to the geologist and mineralogist.

The water power of the Genesee.—Calculations have been made that the quantity of water generally passing in the Genesee River at Rochester, is about 29,000 cubic feet per minute. The water power has also been estimated as equal to about two thousand steam engines of twenty horse power; and estimating horse power as valued in England, it has been computed that the hydraulic privileges at Rochester may be made worth ten millions per annum. Those who made these calculations more than twenty years ago, did not include more than one half the fall within the city limits—for the *city* includes double the amount of fall which was contained within the *village* limits. But the increased skill with which the water privileges are now improved, the extent of the fall permitting the water to be used over and over again, in some cases three or four times on the same lot if required—renders idle all calculations of specific value; with falls and rapids coursing a descent of about 260 feet within the city limits, the water power of the Genesee at Rochester for all practicable purposes, is deemed by the citizens illimitable. The western section of the Erie canal being principally supplied with water from Lake Erie, it will not in future, after the enlargement of the canal shall have been completed, be necessary to direct the waters of the Genesee from the mills and manufactories to the purposes of the canal.

Genesee River navigation.—The Genesee river is navigable for steamboats and other lake vessels from the *north* line of the city to Lake Ontario, a distance of five miles. From near the *south* line of the city, above the falls, the river is navigable by smaller vessels for about forty miles, near Geneseo. Between the north and south line of the city of Rochester, the river navigation is interrupted by a succession of falls and rapids, making an aggregate descent in that short distance of 266 feet.

A small steamboat ran for two seasons between Rochester and the villages southward along the river, for the purpose chiefly of towing the freight-boats loaded with grain and other products of the valley to Rochester. The river business has principally been transferred to the Genesee valley canal, since the construction of that work. It extends from Rochester where it connects with the Erie canal, in a southerly direction 41 miles, with a branch to Dansville of 11 miles, making the whole distance now in use from Rochester to Dansville, 52 miles.

The whole line of this canal, as projected, extends from Rochester to Olean, on the navigable waters of the Allegany river, (about 250 miles above Pittsburgh) 108½ miles. On the 52 miles completed, there are 19 lift locks, besides a great amount of other masonry; and the whole cost of construction was $1,399,292. Another portion of the line, 58½ miles in length, with 92 locks thereon, was put under contract, and $1,717,850 expended, leaving work to be done to the amount of $1,054,451. Besides the two portions mentioned, one mill has been completed, at a cost of $53,105, but is not in use. Of the entire line, only 7 miles have not yet been put under contract.

The cost of this canal, when completed, will, probably, not fall much short of $5,000,000. The total amount expended on all the contracts, in 1844, finished and unfinished, was, $3,207,660. The work was suspended on the contracts in 1842.

Lake Ontario Navigation.—The first steamboat that touched at the port of Genesee or Rochester, was the Ontario, in 1817, on her passages between Sackett's Harbor and Niagara Falls. For many years past, the steamboats on Lake Ontario have regularly touched at the port of Rochester, affording eligible and frequent opportunities for intercourse with the various towns on the British and American shores of the lake.

Rail-roads.—A rail-road from the steamboat landing, at the port of Rochester, at the northern line of the city, connects business and travelling with the Erie canal and the Tonawanda, and Auburn and Rochester rail-roads in the southern part of the city. The rail-road running to the landing, is called the Rochester railroad. Its length is about two miles from the east end of the canal aqueduct to the steamboat landing. The road runs close to the east bank of the river, and at some points within a few feet of the edge of the perpendicular banks, about 150 feet high. The Tonawanda road extends from Rochester to Attica, in Wyoming county, 43 miles, and is part of the chain between Albany and Buffalo; cost, $727,332. The Auburn and Rochester rail-road, also a part of the above chain of rail-roads, extends from Auburn to Rochester, 78 miles, and cost $1,727,361.

Erie Canal and Genesee Aqueduct.—The Erie canal passes directly through Rochester, crossing the Genesee river on a noble aqueduct, which has been substituted for a similar work erected on the original canal, as first constructed. The new aqueduct forms a part of the plan for the enlargement of the Erie canal. The trunk of the aqueduct, exclusive of the wings and weigh-lock, is 444 feet long; and including the wings, at the east end, and the weigh-lock, at the west end of the trunk, is 848 feet long. The parapet walls, forming the sides of the trunk, are 10 feet thick at the coping, and 11 feet 10 inches thick at the water table, and are covered with a coping 1 foot thick, and 11 feet wide, which supports the railings. The width of the water way of the trunk, at the top water line, is 45 feet. The aqueduct is supported on seven arches—segments of a circle; the chord of each is 52 feet, and the versed sine is 10 feet. From the base of the piers, to the top of the water-table, is 18 feet six inches, and from the top of the water-table to the top of the coping, is 8 feet 6 inches, making the whole height, from the base of the piers, to the top of the coping, 27 feet. The width of the aqueduct, or length of each pier, on its foundation, is 75 feet 6 inches. The stone of which the aqueduct is composed, is of the best and most durable kind, being compact gray limestone.

Canal Trade at Rochester.—No where west of the Hudson river, except at Buffalo, is the annual receipt of toll on the canals so large as at Rochester. Such is the extent to which the citizens are engaged in the canal navigation, that the Rochester forwarders have a larger proportion of the stock in the transportation lines than the people of any other city in the state. Indeed, it has been asserted that they owned or controlled, a few years since, about one half of the whole amount of stock in these lines.

On the 29th October, 1822, the first canal boat loaded with flour left the basin on the east side of the Genesee, in Rochester, for Little Falls on the Mohawk; the canal being then navigable no farther eastward, and the Rochester Aqueduct being then unfinished. In the first ten days after the opening of navigation, in the spring of 1823, 10,000 barrels of flour were shipped for Albany and New-York. On the 7th of October, 1823, the original canal aqueduct of stone, across the Genesee river, was completed for navigation. The first cargo of wheat brought to Rochester from Ohio was in 1831,—an arrival worthy of notice as connected with the grain trade.

Manufactures, and other business of Rochester.—The first mill built at the falls at this place was erected by Ebenezer Allen in 1789. It was a grist mill, of imperfect construction, but was resorted to by the inhabitants for a distance of eighteen to thirty miles. A small mill was erected by Charles Hanford in 1807, to remedy the inconvenience experienced through a large section of country for want of milling facilities; the "Allen Mill" having fallen into decay.

No flour was manufactured here till 1814, when a few hundred barrels were sent to the troops on the Niagara frontier. The conclusion of the war with England in 1815, opened our trade with Canada, when a few hundred barrels were manufactured and sent from Rochester to Montreal, and other ports on Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence.

In 1816, between 7,000 and 8,000 barrels of flour were sent from Rochester to the same markets. Since that time the manufacture of flour in Rochester has increased, with some slight fluctuations, till we now find the city exporting, chiefly by the Erie canal, about four or five hundred thousand barrels of flour annually, besides the supply manufactured for the city and vicinity.

The following tables, (published in Holley's State Register for 1845,) show the amount of flour manufactured and wheat consumed, in each of the flouring mills in Rochester, in 1843 and 1844.

FLOURING MILLS IN ROCHESTER.

Amount of Flour manufactured and Wheat consumed in each of the Mills in 1843.

Names of Mills.	Occupants.	Run of Stones.	Barrels of Flour.	Bushels of Wheat.*
Ætna Mills...............	Thomas Barnard......	4	9,505	42,773
Aqueduct Mills,.........	E. S. Beach...........	10	36,241	163,085
Carthage Mills...........	M. B. Seward..........	4	10,914	49,113
City Mills.................	W. F. Holmes.........	5	16,273	73,229
Crescent Mills...........	L. Cook..............	6	4,500	20,250
do do	W. Y. Andrews.......		15,000	67,500
Ely's Mills	E. D. Ely.............	9	30,152	135,684
Farmers' Custom Mills...	S. Gorsline............	3	1,000	4,500
Field's Mills.............	Joseph Field..........	5	28,544	128,448
Frankfort Mills...........	G. W. Burbank & Co..	3	31,749	142,871
Frankfort Custom Mills...	I. F. Mack............	3	7,000	31,500
Geneseė Falls Mills......	T. Parsons............	3	18,000	81,000
Hart's Mills	W. G. Oatman, Ag't...	10	28,288	127,296
Hoyt Mills................	Joseph Putman........	4	13,500	60,750
New-York Mills..........	E. & H. Lyon.........	6	6,500	24,750
do do	James Chappel........		12,303	55,364
Phœnix Mills............	J. Hallowell..........	4	13,500	68,796
Red Mills................	James Chappell......	3	13,700	61,650
Shawmut Mills..........	Smith & Alcott.......	6	26,450	119,025
Smith's Mills............	F. A. Spalding.......	4	7,950	35,775
do do	H. Slater.............	4	4,500	20,250
Union Mills..............	Holmes & Goodman..	4	6,512	29,304
Whitney Mills...........	John Williams........	5	24,300	109,350
White's Mills............	William C. Foster....	3	13,513	60,809
Total................	....	108	380,682	1,713,072

* Four and a-half bushels of wheat to one barrel of flour.

FLOUR.

The following is a statement of the quantity of flour manufactured in the city of Rochester, and shipped east from the Collector's office, during the year 1844:

	Bbls. Flour.		Bbls. Flour
April..........................	25,044	August..........................	56,228
May..........................	36,520	September......................	66,506
June..........................	27,741	October........................	80,668
July..........................	31,870	November, (26th,)............	76,311
	121,195	Total..........................	400,888

WHEAT.

Statement of the quantity of wheat left at Rochester, by canal, during the navigation season of 1844:

	Erie Canal.	Gen. Valley.
April	21,430	3,427
May	77,417	9,989
June	47,551	26,985
July	55.061	9,403
August	95,202	37,210
September	87,410	82,074
October	72,060	76,099
November	151,035	32,675
	507,166	277,862
	277,862	
Total	785,028	

Besides this, a large quantity has been received by rail-road and purchased from wagons; this quantity cannot be ascertained, but will probably amount to 1,000,000 bushels.

STATISTICS OF ROCHESTER BY THE STATE CENSUS, TAKEN IN 1845.

Total population	25,265	No. of children attending common schools	3,565
Males	12,198	No. of children attending academies and other schools	1,058
Females	13,067	Paupers	104
Aliens not Naturalized	3,988	Persons of color not taxed	290
No. of qualified Voters	4,342	do do taxed	38
Persons born in State of N. Y.	13,254	do do voters	20
do do in New England	2,428	Births the year preceding, males	454
do do in other States	791	do do do females	472
do do in Great Britain or its possessions	5,822	Deaths, males	180
Persons born in Germany	1,316	do females	153
do do in France	148	Marriages	238
do do in other Foreign Countries	183	No. of Horses	1,347
No. of children between 5 & 16	5,598		

	Value of Raw Materials.	Manufactures.
17 Flour mills	$1,650,278	$1.758,722
20 Saw mills	35,815	73,230
1 Oil mill	10,000	12,500
6 Fulling mills	22,532	38.410
7 Carding machines	12,300	14,660
7 Woollen factories	49,150	74,400
23 Iron works	150,685	382,555
3 Trip hammers	1,800	6,500
3 Distilleries	17,200	34,500
5 Breweries	20,000	39,000
1 Ashery	1,200	3,700
1 Glass factory	1,500	
1 Rope factory	600	900
2 Paper mills	16,400	61,540
10 Tanneries	112,900	186,650

Number of Manufactories incorporated 1
do do unincorporated 44

CHURCHES.

	No.	Cost of Churches.	Cost of other improvements.	Cost of Real Estate.
Baptist	4	$26,200	$600	$4,700
Episcopal	2	40,000	5,700	1,500
Presbyterian	7	48,400	7,862	7,975
Congregational	1	—	—	—
Methodist	5	35,700	1,800	11,550
Roman Catholic	3	13,500	6,000	4,500
Universalist	1	2,000	—	100
Unitarian	1	5,000	1,200	2,800
Quakers	2	700	75	1,300
Total	26	171,500	23,237	34,425

ACADEMIES AND SCHOOLS.

	No.	Cost of Buildings.	Cost of other improvements.	Cost of Real Estate.
Academy	1	$5,000	—	$2,000
Female Seminaries	2	7,661	1,935	3,350
Orphan Asylum	1	6,000	500	
Common Schools	17	33,870	1,267	9,345
No. of pupils in Common Schools				5,228
Private & Select Schools	19	3,150	—	2,350
No. of pupils				622

MISCELLANEOUS.

Inns and Taverns	45	Merchants	329
Wholesale Stores	16	*Mechanics*	2,352
Retail Stores	215	*Manufacturers*	238
Groceries	120	Attorneys	69
Agriculturists	154	Physicians and Surgeons	48

36 Clergymen, salaries........$20,555

Average........$571

Amount of salaries or compensation, including perquisites and use of Real Estate by them (as above,)........$20,555

The celebrity of the Genesee wheat is increased by the skill with which it is prepared for market. Which Rochester is not only one of the best, but probably the largest flour manufactory in the world.

In various departments of manufactures, such as edge tools, carpeting, fire engines, fire arms, cloths, leather, paper, pianos, cabinet ware, &c., considerable energy is manifested, and in the hundred or more other branches of business named in the Rochester Directory, the citizens have distinguished themselves for their assiduity and skill.

The style of the structures, public and private, is indicative of the correct taste of the inhabitants. A degree of architectural beauty and solid construction has been strikingly evinced in most of the large dwellings erected within ten or twelve years past.

The public edifices, and most of the manufactories and stores, are erected of stone or brick. The law has for some years forbidden the construction of wooden buildings within certain limits, and care has been used to render fire-proof, some of the most valuable structures.

GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

By the last steamer we received our periodicals for October. We resume our monthly notices accordingly.

SCIENTIFIC.

The Royal Scottish Society of Arts has issued a proposal to award prizes, not exceeding 30 sovereigns, each for communications it may approve on the subjects of the mechanical and chemical arts, principally embracing inventions, discoveries and improvements. The programme is as follows:

1. Mechanical Arts. Method of obtaining large supplies of water to extinguish fires, and the best application and form of power in working engines. Filtration of water; economy of fuel, gas, &c.; preparing fuel for peat, for preventing smoke and vapor in factories; heating and ventilating public buildings and private residences; construction of dwellings for the poor; making wholesome bread from Indian corn, or buckwheat, &c., &c.

2. Inventions or improvements in the manufacture of iron and other metals; in writing or printing; tuyeres for blast furnaces; making and tempering steel; gilding brass; artificial pavements; in time pieces, electro-magnetic included; screw cutting; printing presses; stereotyping and cleaning the plaster from types; type founding; composition of printer's rollers; ship building with regard to ventilation; currying and tanning of leather; preparing polished leather; in locomotive engines; railway wheels and axles; smith work and carpentry; in the various implements of the trades, and in electric, magnetic and voltaic apparatus.

3. In the Chemical Arts. Inventions for obtaining pure glass for optical purposes; in fusible glass for chemical use; in annealing glass; preparing writing inks, and in dissolving caoutchouc.

4. In the Fine Arts. Improvements in patternsfor porcelain, clay, or metal, to be adapted to domestic use; in the preparation of lime for fresco painting, and tools for laying on the plaster with precision; in calotype, daguerreotype, and electrotype; in the production of artificial light, as near sunlight as possible; in stone engraving; in the application of daguerreotype and calotype to stone for lithographic printing; in die sinking, wood cutting, and illustrating books, so that the illustration may be printed with the letter press; printing from wood cuts; ornamental metallic casting; construction of buildings on the acoustic principle.

Our readers will perceive by this enumeration, that there are yet many desirable things to be effected in the arts. We believe the offer of the prizes is not restricted to domestic authors.

Mr. John Davy proposes to use the charcoal of Indian corn (which may be said to be almost incombustible from the large quantity of the phosphate of magnesia it contains,) as a sort of varnish for pottery. He thinks it will equal that of Ancient Greece and Etruria. We hope some American chemist will pursue the subject. It is important.

The Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal, for October, contains a large number of valuable articles, almost however of too scientific a character to be interesting to the general reader. Thus, Professor Daubeny has a valuable paper on the site of the ancient city of the Aurunce in Italy, and the volcanic phenomena it exhibits, with remarks on craters of elevation, the distinction between Platonic and volcanic rocks, and on the theories of volcanic action most in repute.

Dr. Alison has a paper entitled, Observations on the principle of Vital Affinity, as illustrated by recent observations in organic chemistry. He remarks at the close of the article, that "oxygen in its elementary state, though indispensable to all living action, although a condition of vitality equally universal as heat, yet hardly enters, if it enters at all, into any of the combinations which are due to the vital affinities. Although taken into the interior of every living being, it appears to comport itself there almost, if not entirely, as it does in acting on dead matter."

In the same number we find an analysis of the American mineral Nemalite, by Professor Connell of St. Andrews. This mineral, which to the eye closely resembles asbestos, is found at Hoboken, but is of very different character. Professor Connelly's analysis is as follows:

In one hundred parts he found:—

Magnesia,	57.86
Protoxide of iron,	2.84
Silica,	.80
Water,	27.96
Carbonic acid	10.00
	99.46

Professor Pictet, to whom we have often alluded in this magazine, has published a most interesting essay on the insects found in amber. Yellow amber or succin, the electrum of the ancients, and the Bernstein of the Germans, often enclosing the remains of insects and vegetables, appears destined to furnish materials of the highest importance, and to complete in an essential department the palæontological history of the articulata. The great number of species which have been already found in this substance, the admirable preservation of the greater part of the individual specimens, the transparency of the material, which enables us to see sometimes the most delicate organs almost as well as in living nature, are so many circumstances which impart interest to the study of the fauna and flora of amber. We may, indeed, continues Pictet, by a suitable examination, hope to arrive at the knowledge of a numerous population, animal and vegetable, whose natural relations may be fixed with a precision which it is impossible to obtain in regard to the other deposits in which they are found. The details of Mr. Pictet's paper are highly interesting.

M. Boussingault, of France, has settled the long mooted point, whether sulphur is present in electricity. He has determined it affirmatively.

Fossil frogs and bats, of a new species, have been discovered in Germany.

Captain Kennedy, who has recently travelled in Algeria, asserts, that the flesh of lions is good and palatable food.

Messrs. Guillot and Sappey have communicated to the Academy of Sciences some new speculations on the respiratory apparatus of birds. They come to these conclusions, among several others:

There is no pleura in birds. All the bronchial ramifications are periferal, and produce by leaning against each other a true aeriferous envelope. The idea of full cells, and the communication of the respiratory apparatus with the muscles, the cellular tissue, and feathers, is rejected. The aerial reservoirs annexed to the lung are five in number on each side. These reservoirs are of no use for respiration, but diminish the specific gravity of the bird, and secure its equilibrium in flight. The air they contain becomes rarified during inspiration, and condensed during expiration. The presence of air in the bones augments their diameter and resistance without increasing their weight. This air penetrates directly into the feathers by an elliptical orifice situated on their under side.

The Nautical Magazine contains a paper, which proposes a new plan for quick staying or wearing ship, particularly when near a lee shore. "It consists merely in having a stout line made fast to the end of the jib boom, and leading along outside to the waist or quarter, to the end of which is attached a large conical canvass bag proportioned to the size of the ship, or her draught of water." The helm being put up or down, as the case may be, an instant check is given, and the ship generally comes round before the yards can be squared.

In the Foreign Quarterly Magazine we find an admirable article on the microscope and its revolutions. The vast number of animalcules contained in water, has led to their classification as Infusoria a general term, and to the division of them again into Polygastria and Rotatoria. We regret we have no room to give a review of the article. It is certainly one of the most masterly productions we have read in a long time.

A French Commission, consisting of three eminent persons, have recently visited the public markets of England, Holland, Belgium and Germany, and made a report to the Prefect of the Department of the Seine. It remarks on one fact which seems applicable to more cities than London, which is, the apparent hesitation of the authorities to increase the number of the public markets. We presume it is owing to the fact, that the stalls are a source of revenue, and are rented at high prices, and that the incumbents have generally influence enough to prevent competition to any great extent, on the ground that otherwise they could not afford to pay so much. The report states two curious facts in relation to the method in which the French and English butchers differ in killing an ox. The former strike a blow with a mallet so as to produce a concussion of the brain, and then the carotid artery is severed, and the animal is bled freely, and the vessels are well emptied. The English butcher strikes with a pole axe having an iron peak. Death ensues, and the action of the heart ceases before the animal has thoroughly bled. English beef has therefore a tendency to putrescence, but is the most nourishing.

The iron manufacture of England has become enormous. The following facts will show its progress. In 1788, the whole quantity of pig iron made in England and Wales was but 61,300 tons, and in Scotland 7,000 tons. In 1796 the amount was 125,079 tons; in 1806, it was 258,206 tons; in 1823, 482,066 tons; in 1830, 698,417 tons; in 1836, one million tons; in 1840, 1,343,000 tons. In 1842, there was a temporary falling off, owing to commercial depression, but at this moment it is supposed, a greater amount is in process of manufacture than at any former period.

At the recent meeting of the British Association there was a large gathering of scientific men, and their memoirs, debates and conversations, were of a high and useful order.

Professor Forbes is still busy in exploring the Swiss glaciers.

It is proposed to tunnel Mount Cenis a distance of seven miles.

The secret of obtaining the splendid red of the old painted windows has been discovered by the moderns. It appears that it is the result of the glass makers' skill rather than the artists, Protoxide of copper is melted with the glass in the furnaces, which gives the most splendid color by transmitted light.

Clarke and Varley have invented pile-driving engines worked by steam or the compression of air.

The new act in relation to English steamboats requires among other things the following particulars to be observed:

An iron steamer of 100 tons burthen and upwards must have water-tight partitions.

No steamer over 100 tons must go to sea without hose to extinguish fire.

Every steamer passing another must keep on the port side.

The owners are compelled every year to send a declaration to the Lord's Committee of the Privy Council for Trade, of the sufficiency and condition of steamers in all respects.

The following table shows the character and number of the boats each steamer must carry.

Tonnage.	Number.	Long boat launch or pinnace.		Other Boats.					
		Length	Bred'h	Length	Bred'h	Length	Bred'h	Length	Bred'h
		ft.	ft.in.	ft.	ft.in.	ft.	ft.in.	ft.	ft.in.
850 and upwards	4	26	8	24	7	22	6.6	16	5.6
650 to 850	4	24	7	22	6.6	18	5.6	16	5.6
350 to 650	3	20	6.6	18	5.6	..	..	14	5
200 to 350	2	18	6	..	..	..	..	14	5
100 to 200	2	..	..	16	5.6	..	..	..	..

In a late astronomical work of Professor Nichol, of the University of Glasgow, he states, a remarkable nebula in the Dog's Ear is undergoing a change, from an apparently simple form into one resembling a scroll, that is gradually unwinding, or the evolution of a gigantic shell.

The scientific world is much occupied with the brilliant discovery of the French Astronomer Le Verrier. A new planet was discovered on the 23d of September, the place being designated by means of his calculations alone.

FINE ARTS.

A beautiful Sevres Vase has been presented by Louis Philippe to M. Gerard, the celebrated Publisher of Paris, and the Printer of the celebrated History of Versailles.

Sixdeniers, a celebrated Engraver of France, is no more. He was drowned while on a party of pleasure with his family, on the anniversary of his wedding day.

Art, in Continental Italy, appears to be highly flourishing; but in looking over the notices of novelties, we see nothing particularly worthy of notice at this time.

MONTHLY LIST OF PATENTS.

A LIST of Patents issued from the 21st day of September, to the 20th day of October, 1846, inclusive, viz:

To Jacob Cornelison, of Danville, Penn., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 26th September, 1846.

To Benjamin Norton, of Boonton, N. J., for improvement in machinery for Rolling Hoop Iron. Patented 26th September, 1846.

To Kasson Frazer, of Fayetteville, N. Y., for improvement in Hames for Harness. Patented 26th September, 1846.

To William W. Allcott, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Kiln-drying grain. Patented 26th September, 1846.

To Elijah Chapman, of Akron, Ohio, for improvement in Carriage Brakes. Patented 26th September, 1846.

To James Miller, of Philadelphia, Penn., for improvement in Rotary Engines. Patented 26th September, 1846.

To John Howard, of Adrian, Mich., for improvement in Kiln-drying grain, &c. Patented 26th September, 1846.

To Charles Bishop, of Newtown, Ct., for improvement in Carding Machines. Patented 26th September, 1846.

To William Mason, of Taunton, Mass., for improvement in Self-acting Mules. Patented 3d Oct. 1846.

To James T. Wade, of Augusta, Geo., for improvement in Straw Cutters. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Carl V. Ganahl, of Imsbruck, Austria, for improvement in Ribbon Looms, (assigned to Francis Ganahl, of New-Orleans.) Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Deming Jarves, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Glass Furnaces. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Walden Eddy, of Easton & John A. Taplin, of Fishkill, N. Y., for improvement in Threshing Machines. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Adam C. Conde, of Schenectady, N. Y., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Henry M. Paine, of North Oxford, Mass., for improvement in Glass Lenses. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To James M. Winslow, of Campbell's Port, Ohio, for improvement in Lath Cutting Machines. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Charles Fanshaw, of New-York City, for improvement in Neck Stocks. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Georges Michiels, of Paris, France, for the improvement in the Manufacture of Gas. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Georges Michiels, of Gaudaloupe, Island of Gaudaloupe, for improvement in Making Sugar. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To John M. Schrock, of Millersburg, Ohio, and John G. Fisher, of Quincy, Ill., for improvement in Clocks. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To William Sedgwick & John Brooks, of Poughkeepsie, N. Y., for improvement in Fruit Gatherers. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To William Taylor, of Berlin, N. Y., for improvement in Boot Crimps. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To William J. Rylander, of Columbus, Geo., for improvement in Straw Cutters. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To David and Esaias Z. Little, of Gettysburgh, Penn., for improvement in Carriage Steps. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To Charles W. Grannis, of Collins, N. Y., for improvement in Fire Engines. Patented 7th Oct. 1846.

To William H. Passmore, of North Wayne, Me., for improvement in Tempering Furnaces. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To Orlando Owen, of Burlington, Vt., for improvement in Apparatus for Constructing Cisterns. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To H. B. Masser, of Sunbury, Penn., for improvement in Washing Machines. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To Stuart Perry, of New-York City, for improvement in Gas Engines. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To John Goldenburgh, of Cincinnati, Ohio, for improvement in Fire Place Grates. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To James A. Cutting and George Butterfield, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in Couplings for railroad cars. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To Francis N. Still, of Buffalo, N. Y., for improvement in making Moulds for Castings. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To William B. Treadwell, of Albany, N. Y., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To James Murray, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in Corn Shellers. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To Jonathan W. Gordon, of Jamestown, N. C., for improvement in Corn Shellers. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To Réné L'Anglois, of Assumption, La., for improvement in Lightning Conductors. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To Samuel C. Wilt, of Hartleton, Penn., for improvement in Lanterns for destroying insects. Patented 7th October, 1846.

To Isaac Slack, of Avondale, Penn., for improvement in Carriage Axles. Patented 10th October, 1846.

To Henry W. Sabin, of Rushville, N. Y., for improvement in Windlasses. Patented 10th October, 1846.

To Charles H. Rogers and Samuel H. Hancox, of Troy, N. Y., for improvement in Stoves. Patented 10th October, 1846.

To Ross Winans, of Baltimore, Md., for improvement in Locomotive Carriages. Patented 14th October, 1846.

To J. W. Howlet and F. M. Walker, of Greensboro', N. C., for improvement in Preparing Grain for Flouring. Patented 14th October, 1846.

To Benjamin Babbitt, of New-York City, for improvement in Machinery for Trimming Brushes.—Patented 14th October, 1846.

To Clinton Foster and Levi Jones, of Laporte, Ia., for improvement in Threshing Machines. Patented 17th October, 1846.

To Timothy Demarck Jackson and Alfred Judson, of Rochester, N. Y., for improvement in Bell Machinery for Hotels, &c., (said Alfred Judson having assigned his right, title and interest in said improvement to T. D. Jackson.) Patented 17th October, 1846.

To Peter Von Schmidt, of Washington, D. C., for improvement in Cotton Gins. Patented 17th October, 1846.

To Nicholas I. Lampman, of Coxsackie, N. Y., for improvement in Hay and Cotton Presses. Patented 17th October, 1846.

RE-ISSUES.

To Erastus B. Bigelow, of Boston, Mass., for improvement in the Power Loom for weaving Coach Lace and other similar fabrics.—Original Letters Patent dated 20th April, 1837. Re-issued 25th September, 1846.

To Clement O. Read, of Milford, Mass., for improved machine for manufacturing Wood Screws.—Original Letters Patent dated 15th December, 1837. Re-issued 7th October, 1846.

DESIGNS.

To Samuel W. Gibbs, of Albany, N. Y., for Design for Stoves. (Assigned to Augustus Quackenboss, of Albany.) Patented 3d October, 1846.

To John S. and Merritt Peckham, of Utica, N. Y., for Design for Stoves. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Robert A. Gregory, of New-York City, for Design for Stoves. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Ezra Ripley, of Troy, N. Y., for Design for Stove. (Assigned to Johnson & Cox.) Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Cresson, Stewart, Beesley & Sailor, of Philadelphia, Pa., for Design for Stove. (Assigned to W. P. Cresson.) Patented 3d October, 1846.

To John S. and Merritt Peckham, of Utica, N. Y., for Design for Stoves. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To John Dutton, of Village Green, Pa., for Design for Ornamental Fountain. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Sherman S. Jewitt and Francis H. Root, of Buffalo, N. Y., for Design for Stove. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Sherman S. Jewitt and Francis H. Root, of Buffalo, N. Y., for Design for Stove. Patented 3d October, 1846.

To Samuel Hanley, of Troy, N. Y., for Design for Stoves. (Assigned to A. T. Dunham, B. H. Sage, Eber Jones and John B. Chollar, of Troy, N. Y.) Patented 10th October, 1846.

To Lucius O. Palmer, of Utica, N. Y., for Design for Stoves. (Assigned to John F. Seymour.) Patented 10th October, 1846.

To Lucius O. Palmer, of Utica, N. Y., for Design for Stoves. (Assigned to John F. Seymour.) Patented 10th October, 1846.

To W. & R. P. Resor, of Cincinnati, Ohio, for Design for Stoves. Patented 10th October, 1846.

To James Wager, of Troy, N. Y., for Design for Stoves. Patented 10th October, 1846.

To W. & R. P. Resor, of Cincinnati, Ohio, for Design for Vases. Patented 10th October, 1846.

To Peter Low, of Troy, N. Y., for Design for Cooking Stoves. Patented 10th October, 1846.

MINING AND OTHER INTELLIGENCE.

From the London Mining Journal of the 26th ultimo, we take the following extracts as interesting to our readers:

REVIEW OF THE MINES AND MINING INDUSTRY OF BELGIUM.

R. Valpy, Esq., (of the Board of Trade,) read a paper on this subject at the meeting of the British Association: it stated that, as a coal producing country, Belgium ranked the second in Europe. The ratio of the coal district to the total area is—

			Acres		Tons annually
Great Britain	1-20	or	2,930,000	producing	34,000,000
Belgium	1-22	"	335,000	"	4,500,000
France	1-210	"	630,000	"	3,783,000
Germanic Union					3,000,000

In 1838, the total number of coal mines in Belgium was 307, with 470 pits in work, and 172 in process of construction, employing 37,171 persons; being an increase of 8454—or 28 per cent.—on the number employed in 1829. The increase of the quantity of coal raised was not accurately ascertained, but it appeared to be about 37 per cent. The average cost of production is 10s. 8d. per ton, and the average price 23s. 1d. for first quality, and 16s. 6½d. for the second quality of coal; the average rate of wages is 1s. 6 3 10d. per day. The establishments for preparing other mineral productions for market in 1838, were—for iron 221, copper 8, zinc 7, lead 2; the total number of furnaces was 139, of which 47 used coke and 92 charcoal. The total number of accidents from 1821 to 1840 was 1352; which occasioned severe hurts to 882 persons, and deaths to 1710, making a total of 2592 sufferers in 20 years.

MAMMOTH ENGINES.

The Great Western Company continue to turn out new engines even of more stupendous build than any before. A splendid one, the *Elk*, has just been slipped off the anvil, to be specially employed in the express train service. The *Elk* was designed by Mr. Brunel, under the superintendence of Mr. Gooch; her dimensions are—driving wheels 7 ft. diameter, stroke 18 in., cylinder 16 in., boiler 14 ft.; weight of engine, without water, 25 tons; weight of tender without coke or water, 9 tons. Though the machine cannot be expected to be as yet in proper working order, she was attached to an express train with six carriages, and performed a distance of 77 miles (from Swindon to Paddington) in 1h. 20 m. The down journey was not so rapid, having been 1h. and 31 m. performing it. Besides the *Elk*, the following large locomotives are in working—the *Great Western*, diameter of driving wheels 8 ft., cylinder 18 in., stroke 24 in., boiler 16 ft.; weight of engine, without water, 36 tons; weight of tender, without fuel or water, 10 tons—making a total of 46 tons; this engine was built for passenger trains upon the same plan as the *Elk*. The *Prince* and the *Queen* engines are of the same dimensions, and are also for passenger trains. The *Bellerophon* and the *Premier* are luggage engines, having 6 wheels of 5 ft. in diameter connected; the dimensions in other respects, and their respective weights, being similar to the *Great Western* passenger engine. These luggage engines are decidedly the most powerful, and surpass in power and speed the *Hercules*, which impelled a train weighing 406 tons, in the experimental trip with the Gauge Commissioners.

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METAL.

London, September 25, 1845.

	£	s.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	£	s.	d.
Iron—Bar *a*. Wales..ton	0	0—	8	15	0	*Copper*—Ordin. sheets lb	0	0—	0	0	10
" London....	0	0—	9	15	0	" bottoms.	0	0—	0	0	11
Nail rods "	0	0—	10	10	0	*Tin*—Com. blocks *g*. cwt	0	0—	4	15	0
Hoop (Staf.)	0	0—	11	10	0	" bars	0	0—	4	16	6
Sheet " " ..	0	0—	13	0	0	Refined	0	0—	4	18	0
Bars " " ..	0	0—	11	0	0	Straits *h*..........	0	0—	4	13	0
Rails, average...	9	15—	10	0	0	Banca	0	0—	4	15	0
Welsh cold blast foundry pig	0	0—	5	5	0	*Tin Plates*—Ch. IC*i*, box	1	9—	1	11	0
						" IX. ...	1	15—	1	17	0
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde	3	13–6	3	15	0	Coke, IC.........	1	5–6	1	6	0
Russian CCND *c*..	0	0—	——			" IX....	1	11 6	1	12	0
" PSI.....	0	0—	——			*Lead*—Sheet *k*.......ton	0	0–	19	10	0
" Gourieff..	0	0—	——			Pig, refined......	0	0–	21	5	0
" Archangel	0	0—	13	10	0	" common	0	0–	18	10	0
Swedish *d*, on the spot.	11	0—	11	10	0	" Spanish, in bd	0	0–	17	10	0
" Steel, fagt. .	0	0—	16	5	0	" American....	0	0–	18	0	0
" " kegs *e*	0	0—	13	10	0	*Spelter*—(Cake) *l*	18	15–	19	0	0
Copper—Tile *f*.........	0	0—	87	10	0	*Zinc*—(Sheet) *m* export*	0	0–	28	0	0
Tough cake......	0	0—	88	10	0	*Quicksilver*, *n*.........lb	0	0—	0	4	6
Best selected.....	0	0—	91	10	0	*Refined Metal*.......ton	0	0—	——		

a Discount 2½ per cent. *b* Net cash. *c* Discount 2½ per cent. *d* Ditto

[*From our Correspondent.*]

Iron—Welsh and Staffordshire firm at quotations of last week's *Mining Journal*, Scotch pig a shade lower, with a rather heavy appearance. Several large purchases of rails this week by railway companies, at 9*l.* 15*s.* to 10*l.* A few sales this week of Swedish iron and steel.—*Copper* continues in fair demand.

Tin.—Our quotations for English are nominal—the smelters being still without supplies; but the prices we quote have been paid this week for small quantities. Straits and Banca very scarce, and several parcels have been sold this week at quotations. Straits, for arrival, may be quoted at 1*s.* to 2*s.* less.

Tin-Plates and *Lead* remain steady at last week's prices.

Spelter is very dull—no sale having been reported for the whole week, except a lot of 50 tons, at 18*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*, ex ship.

[*Communicated by Messrs. Whitcomb and Barton, Old Broad-street.*]

There has been no change in the price of English bar-iron this week, which may be quoted firm at 9*l.* in Wales. Welsh and Staffordshire pig-iron are in fair demand, particularly the latter, for which higher rates have been paid. In Scotch, the business done this week has been rather more limited; we quote the price firm at 74*s.* cash, for mixed numbers. A sale of spelter is reported as 18*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* over ship's side.—In other metals no alteration.

GLASGOW PIG-IRON TRADE.

To the Editor of the Mining Journal.

Sir,—Prices within these few days have somewhat declined, which has occasioned a brisker demand than we have had for some time. We quote the price to-day at 71*s.* to 72*s.* for No. 3; 73*s.* 6*d.* for mixed Nos.; and 75*s.* to 76*s.* for No. 1—cash in 14 days, free on board here. For immediate cash, something less than our quotations has been accepted for No. 1.—*Glasgow, Sept.* 23.

DOUGLAS & HILL, Metal Brokers.

PROSPECTIVE OPENING OF RAILWAYS.

The Newcastle and Berwick, between Newcastle and Morpeth, is announced to be opened in the early part of the ensuing month, and the whole line is expected to be finished by February next. The bridges over the Tyne and Tweed, now in course of erection, will occupy two years at least ere they can be opened. The extension of the North Shields line to Tynemouth will be thrown open to the public in a few weeks.—The Whitehaven and Harrington Railway is in so forward a state, as to promise its opening for public traffic in the early part of October.—The South Devon will be opened on the atmospheric system of traction in about three months. The engines at the Exeter and Countess Weir stations are completed, and have been tried; the valves are being fixed to the tubing, and the connecting pipes for the engines will be forthwith laid down. Mr. Samuda was on the line, on Tuesday last, superintending the works in progress.—The Bridlington branch, the property of the Hull and Selby, extending from Hull to Bridlington by way of Beverley and Driffield, a distance of 31 miles, is appointed to be publicly opened on Tuesday, the 6th of next month.—The Margate line, a branch of the South Eastern from Ramsgate, is on the eve of completion, and will be thrown open to the public in a few days.—The Hertford branch of the Eastern Counties was opened on Tuesday as a double line.—The Bedford branch of the London and Birmingham will be completed the first week in October.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

The Rights of Labor. By Calvin Colton. Author of "The Life and Times of Henry Clay," "Junius Tracts," "Four Years in Great Britain," &c. &c. New-York: Published by A. S. Barnes & Co., 51 John street. 1846.

It was our intention to give this valuable treatise an extended notice, and to have made some quotations from its well reasoned pages, but previously inserted matter has unexpectedly limited our space, which only permits us to say, that we have given to it a careful reading and examination, and to pronounce its facts to be well arranged, and its reasonings to be sound and convincing. The whole treatise is therefore a valuable addition to American political economy, and we would that it were placed in the hands of every intelligent laborer in the country to apprise him of his rights, and inspire him with a determination to defend them, which in our opinion it could not fail to do.

Altowan, or Incidents of Life and Adventures in the Rocky Mountains. By an Amateur Traveller. Edited by J. Watson Webb. In two volumes. Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-street, New-York. 1846.

There is much in this work to interest the reader, as a picture of life among the savage tribes of the Rocky Mountains, hunting the bear, the buffalo, &c. &c. The dedication, to "C. Fenno Hoffman, Esq.," informs us that it contains the adventures, in that inhospitable region, of "one of the gallant fellows, who fought under Wellington at Waterloo," and bore upon his person honorable marks of his gallantry upon that occasion; and among his insignia, the evidence of his country's gratitude. The second son of one of the most ancient families in Great Britain, with the blood of princes in his veins, &c. To those who are fond of adventures, and of viewing nature, both animate and inanimate, in its primitive dress, we recommend these two volumes, which are made more exciting and touching from the romantic story which the editor has woven round them, by the introduction of a young lady, whose history is given in the conclusion. We must not anticipate the reader, by disclosing "the denouement" of the tale. He must read the book, as we have done, and then he will learn, that even the cold of the Rocky Mountains, amidst almost eternal snows, cannot chill the heart, and render it impervious to the tender passion. "Altowan" is a noble character, well-sustained, as indeed are all the others, whether Indians, half-breeds, or Europeans.

Morning and Evening Exercises for the Closet, for every day in the year. By the Rev. William Jay, of Argyle Chapel, Bath. New-York: Published by Harper & Brothers, No. 82 Cliff street. 1847.

We shall let the writer of this work speak for himself by the following extract from his preface:

"The author commends the work to that part of the pious public, who love and practice retreat; who wish not only to read the Scriptures alone, but to observe their beauties and advantages; who, while they neglect not their own meditations, are thankful to derive help from others, and often exclaim "a word fitly spoken how good is it." * * * * * As to readers of this character, the author trusts the materials here furnished will not be unacceptable, of whatever religious denomination they may be found. He considers the community, in which, by the providence of God, he himself labors, not as a party, but only a part; and he is not an enemy to the whole army, because he is attached to his own regiment."

Pictorial History of England. New-York: Harper & Brothers. To be completed in about forty numbers; price 25 cents. each.

The numbers before us are Nos. 10 & 11, containing, as illustrations, the Great Seal of Edward III.; a portrait of that monarch, and one of Queen Phillippa; Dumferline Abbey, the burial place of Bruce; Ancient Caves, near Nottingham Castle, and Mortimer's Hole in said castle; Queen Phillippa interceding for the Burgesses of Calais; with many others equally interesting. As this work advances, it fully sustains the praise we have heretofore given to it.

A Course of Reading for Common Schools and the lower classes of Academies, on the plan of the Author's "Elements of Reading and Oratory." By H. Mandeville, Professor of Moral Science and Belles Lettres in Hamilton College. New-York: D. Appleton & Co. 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut-street. 1846.

A very useful book to instruct the young reader in Sentential structure, and in a correct, intelligent and graceful delivery in reading and speaking. There is, moreover, a valuable collection of examples, taken from the choicest English and American writers, which greatly enhance the value of the work, and render it very desirable as a medium of imparting at the same time useful information, and exhibiting a purity of style, upon a variety of subjects.

Poems. By Amelia. Second edition enlarged. New-York: D. Appleton & Co. 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut-street. 1846.

There is something very pleasing in many of the pieces contained in this volume. The author has evidently a poetical vein, and without pretension, has written some very pretty things, upon "the Rainbow, the Sky Lark, My Sisters, the Maiden's First Love," &c. The list reaches to 198 in number, and must have given to others, as they have to us, pleasure in their perusal, as this is a second edition of them.

Laneton Parsonage, a Tale by the Author of "Amy Herbert," "Gertrude," &c. Edited by the Rev. W. Sewell, D. D., Fellow of Exeter College, Oxford. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut-street. 1846.

The name of this book goes far towards developing what it contains, for it is pretty much the history of a parsonage, and of two young daughters who shared the pious care of the minister, whose leisure hours were devoted to their education. There is another young female, who is adopted by an excellent lady, residing in the neighbourhood; her history is blended with that of the girls of the parsonage. The incidents of the biography, if so it may be called, of all three, are such as fully develope all the temptations to error, in the morning of life, while their care-takers use every proper means to correct their improprieties of conduct and to give them the best counsel. The book ends with their going to a boarding school near London, where they appear to be happily situate.

Childe Harold's Pilgrimage; a Romaunt. By Lord Byron. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut-street. New-York: D. Appleton & Co. 200 Broadway.

This is a splendid copy of a book so fully known, that we need only speak of its typographical merits, which are all that could be desired.

It contains Eight beautiful illustrations of Newstead Abbey, Cadiz, Colonna, Drachenfels, Chellon, Petrarch's tomb at Arqua, Temple of Clitumnus, and Fountain of Egeria. The admirers of Childe Harold could not have him in a handsomer dress.

Etchings of a Whaling Cruise, with Notes of a Sojourn on the Island of Zanzibar; to which is appended a brief History of the Whale Fishery, its past and present condition. By J. Ross Browne. Illustrated by numerous Engravings on steel and wood. New-York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 82 Cliff-street. 1846.

To those who know not the perils that are encountered by those "who go down to the sea in ships," we commend this unvarnished account of a Whaling Voyage. The writer, a native of Kentucky, came to Washington in 1841, and became a Reporter in the Senate. His vocation having ceased, and being desirous to see the world, he embarked in company with a young acquaintance from Ohio, on board a whale ship, from New-Bedford; and this book gives us the whole history of what transpired on board, and at some places stopped at, during their cruise, until he obtained his discharge at Zanzibar, of which place, its government, manners, customs, vegetable products, &c., we a have good account. The Appendix gives a short history, with a tabular statement, of the Whale Fishery of the United States, and other important information. Take the book altogether, it is quite a creditable production, gives much valuable information, and though some of the details of the voyage, which are given, might, perhaps, as well have been omitted, yet it all bears the stamp of truth and candor, and must prove a source of great wonderment to those who have never taken the pains to inquire, how the great masters of the mighty deep are pursued and caught by their hardy and enterprising countrymen — of whom the great Edmund Burke has said, there is "no sea but what is vexed with their fisheries — no climate that is not witness to their toils."

WILEY & PUTNAM'S LIBRARY OF AMERICAN BOOKS. No. XXI. and XXII. *The Early History of Jesuit Missions in North America.* Translated by the Rev. William Ingraham Kip, M. A., author of "Double Witness of the Church"—in two parts. New-York and London: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway: 6 Waterloo-Place.

It is interesting to read these letters of the disciples of Loyola, who were among the most early travellers in the wilds of our country, among the woody islands and beautiful inlets of the St. Lawrence—by the Council fires of the Hurons and Algonquins—at the sources of the Mississippi, on the vast prairies of Illinois and Missouri. They were among the most learned men of their day, and the accounts given in these letters, of their labors, sufferings and martyrdoms, bear ample testimony to their zeal, faith and perseverance. These two volumes contain Missionary life among the Abnakes, 1772; the Wanderings of Father Rasles, 1689–1723; the Death of Father Rasles, 1724; Catherine, the Iroquois Saint, 1656–1715; the Iroquois Martyrs, 1688–1693; Montcalm's Expedition to destroy Fort George, 1757; Father Marest's journeys through Illinois and Michigan, 1712; Voyage up the Mississippi, 1727; Mission to the Arkansas, 1727; the Massacre by the Natches, 1729; the Mission to the Illinois, 1750.